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Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

ROMANCING ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP:
A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY, MATURITY,
NATIONAL CULTURE, AND ROMANCE OF LEADERSHIP
IN A MULTINATIONAL ORGANIZATION

A dissertation proposal submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Vu Nguyen Tran

May, 2012

Thomas Penderghast, D.B.A. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Vu Nguyen Tran

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Doctoral Committee:

Thomas Penderghast, D.B.A., Chairperson

June Schmieder-Ramirez, Ph.D.

Cheryl Williams, Ph.D.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is a dedication to my parents whose will to freedom inspired my decision to pursue a graduate study in leadership. Their courage, determination and sacrifice have brought new lives for their children, relatives and friends in this land of liberty and splendid opportunity. How they have lived taught me more about the meaning of the word leadership than many of the books on the same subject I have read. I am grateful to have been born their son.

This dissertation also is a dedication from my wife and I to our four children, Long, Viet, Oanh, and Thao. With their cousins, they bring great joy, pride, and hope to their parents and grandparents every day. They are our future.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Although this dissertation bears my name on its cover, many people have contributed to its completion in many different ways. To these people I owe a deep gratitude.

My biggest thank goes to my extended family for their support over the years for which this study could neither have started nor completed without. A big thank to my parents who have done a nice job at instilling in their son a passion for learning that could not be easily turned off. I hope one day I too can instill this same passion in my children.

I would like to thank my wife, Kim-Phuong, for her unwavering support, patience and love over the years. To give me time to complete this study, she has taken the lead in making sure that our four children are kept up with their school work, soccer practices, dancing classes, girl/boy scouting activities, community services, and that we attend all important family functions of our parents, in-laws and relatives. This effort is more demanding than mine getting a university degree.

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For the actual dissertation work, I am most grateful to my advisor and committee chairperson, Dr. Thomas Penderghast. His encouragement strengthened my desire to pursue “a path less traveled” when looking for a research topic. Romance of leadership, after all, is not a perspective one would typically find in a leadership text book. His guidance, review, and feedback helped me fine-tune my study and stay focused

throughout the dissertation period. His patience and accommodation gave me the flexibility needed to complete this study while remaining fully employed.

I am thankful for Dr. June Schmieder-Ramirez and Dr. Cheryl Williams, the dissertation committee members. Dr. Schmieder-Ramirez introduced me to Dr. Penderghast when I was looking for an advisor who might be interested on my research focus. Dr. Williams' thought-provoking questions during the comprehensive examination which led me to incorporate a discussion of the groupthink phenomenon in the literature review section.

I am also thankful to the hundreds of employees of [REDACTED] who participated in this study and the company executives who approved for their participations. This dissertation could not have been completed without their enthusiastic supports. A special thank goes to my boss Dr. Dani Ratner who has kept me very busy at work, but is always ready to lend a hand to make sure that I can complete this study, whether by giving a few kind words of encouragement, sending emails to other executives to help secure additional supports, or making adjustments to my workload so that I can keep up with the University's deadlines.

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VITA

Vu N. Tran

EDUCATION

- 2002 University of California at Irvine
Master of Business Administration (Executive Program)
- 1994 California State University at Long Beach
Master of Science in Computer Science and Engineering
- 1989 University of California at Irvine
Bachelor of Science in Information and Computer Science

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

- 2004- Present 
Senior Director, Engineering
- 2007-2010 ACADEMY of MANAGEMENT
Executive Committee Member (Organizational Behavior Division)
- 2000-2004 DIRECTV
Senior Manager, Engineering
- 1995-2000 ARCQUEST Consulting
Principal Consultant/Account Manager
- 1996-1997 MITSUBISHI Consumer Electronics America, Engineering Center
Project Manager
Chief Software Architect
- 1995-1996 The AEROSPACE Corporation
Senior Systems Analyst
- 1993-1995 ARINC Research
Senior Principal Engineer
- 1991-1993 LOGICON/ULTRASYS
Systems Analyst
- 1989-1991 UNISYS
Systems Programmer

ABSTRACT

Romance of Leadership is a disposition to over-attribute organizational and societal outcomes to the actions of senior level leaders. The greater the magnitude of the outcome, the stronger the belief that leadership is the most significant driving force behind that outcome. Strong believers are found to be more susceptible to the emergence of transformational and despotic leadership. The tendency to romanticize leadership cannot be eliminated but needs to be understood, accounted for, and hopefully managed, by aspiring leaders.

This study found that romance of leadership is a pervasive and durable phenomenon that is rooted in human personality, and shaped by culture and leadership experience in organization. Of the 388 employees of a multinational company participated in the study, 83% of them agreed that organization outcomes, whether they are good or bad, are attributable to the actions of senior level leaders, although the degree of agreement varied across different national cultures.

The study also found significant correlations between antecedent factors such as personality, national culture, maturity/experience and romance of leadership. At the company level, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were positively and significantly correlated to romance of leadership. Neuroticism was negatively and significantly correlated. Extraversion was the most consistent personality trait predictor of romance of leadership. Openness and conscientiousness were the second most consistent predictors. Agreeableness and neuroticism were only significant correlated among male participants or those from the United States. The correlation between personality trait factors and romance of

leadership was more prominent in individualistic cultures such as the United States than in collectivistic cultures such as India.

Years of managing and seniority level outperforms age, years of college education, and years of working experience as predictors of romance of leadership. The percentage of those who romanticized leadership is greater among the more senior level members. Compared to personality and national culture, life experience has significantly less influence on romance of leadership.

Overall, a combination of personality, maturity, and cultural background can explain for approximately 30% of the variability in romance of leadership. The effect size of this relationship is large.

Chapter 1: Overview of the Study

“We must know much more about the hitherto nameless persons who comprise the followers of leaders if we are to develop adequate understanding of the reciprocal relationship” (Burns, 1978, p. 61).

“Leadership is very much in the eyes of the beholder: followers, not the leader – and not researchers – define it” (Meindl, 1990, p. 331).

Introduction

Leading organizations is challenging. Leaders are entrusted by shareholders with organizations and capital to embark on challenging endeavors to turn ideas into profits. They marshal necessary resources to produce and sell goods and services that meet the needs of the market and best competitors. Failure to deliver the profits that meet investors’ expectations results in organization leaders being promptly replaced. Leadership effectiveness is thus intrinsically linked to organizational performance, as Peter Drucker (Drucker, 1954) once noted, “in a competitive economy, above all, the quality and performance of the managers determine the success of a business, indeed they determine its survival” (p. 1).

To ensure that an organization performs, leaders must engage in all aspects critical to the functioning of the organization, including managing the organization’s execution process (Bossidy, Charan, & Burck, 2002), its development process (Gallos, 2006), and its change process (Kotter, 1996).

To deliver on commitments requires the mastery of the discipline of organizational execution. Effective leaders don’t just set strategies; they actively lead in the implementation, or execution, of these strategies within their organizations. Execution leads to the delivery of products and services on commitment. Organizational

effectiveness is reflected in the quality of organizational execution. In his best-selling book *Execution* (Bossidy et al., 2002), Larry Bossidy, the former chairman and CEO of Honeywell International, makes execution the heart of effective leaders and leadership:

Execution is a systematic process of rigorously discussing hows and whats, questioning, tenaciously following through, and ensuring accountability...In the most fundamental sense, execution is a systematic way of exposing reality and acting on it...Execution requires a comprehensive understanding of a business, its people, and its environment. The leader is the only person in a position to make execution happen, through his and her deep personal involvement in the substance and even in the details of execution. (p. 22)

In the age of globalization, hyper-competition, and creative destruction, organizational effectiveness demands collective emotional commitment by organization members. Collective emotional commitment enables organizations to overcome difficult times when the chance of success is low and the risk of failure is high. Building collective emotional commitment requires transformational leadership (Bass, 1997; Burns, 1978).

Transforming leaders lead their organizations with a sense of purpose, conviction, and confidence based on deepest personal values and beliefs (George, 2004). They articulate clear, positive, moral, idealized, inspiring, and believable visions of what could be in order to enroll others to follow (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 2008; Nanus, 2008). They demonstrate care and concern for their followers as they encourage them to always look at problems beyond conventional perspectives and to seek new solutions. They make sure that successes are celebrated and sacrifices and contributions are recognized in the building of shared community spirit (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

Through the leadership process, followers come to identify with their leaders, become enthralled by their charisma, share their sense of purpose and destiny, internalize

their vision, trust in their leadership, desire to emulate their behaviors (Kouzes & Posner, 2008), transcend self-interests, and unite emotionally for collective committed actions. Followers feel personally empowered and transformed by their leaders through the leadership process (Bass, 1985; Bass & Stogdill, 1990).

When uncertainties are high, organization leaders focus on trust building. Trust in self, trust in team, trust in organization, trust in market, and trust in leadership. Trust helps organizations to overcome the fear of uncertainties and to accelerate execution (Covey & Merrill, 2006). When followers trust their leaders, they are willing to chance following these leaders in spite of great uncertainties. Trusting organization members are more willing to suspend their questions, doubts, and personal motives to work on realizing organization's goals (Dirks, 2000). To build trust, leaders demonstrate competency, integrity, and are benevolent in their decisions and actions (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 2006).

When organizational change is inevitable, courageous leaders step up to make the necessary transformations happen. They create a sense of urgency for changes, build supportive coalitions to guide the change effort, develop common change purposes and visions, galvanize the organizations to commit to and to act on these visions, create opportunities for short-term wins to build momentum, and ensure that successful changes are entrenched in the cultural fabric of the organization. Through these actions, leaders transform organizations (Kotter, 1995; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Schein, 2004).

Yet, no matter how much leaders do, their success remains situational. Effective leadership, as many researchers today would agree, is the product of complex relationships between the leader, the followers, their interactions, the situations, and the

environment. For instance, while leaders can seek to shape culture, their thought systems are often shaped and constrained by their own cultural upbringing (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Schein, 2004). While they can take actions to influence situational outcomes, what they do is constrained by the dynamics of the situation they face (Green, Nebeker, & Boni, 1976; Peters, Hartke, & Pohlmann, 1985). While they can focus their energy on trust building, it is the followers' willingness to trust that realizes it (Mayer et al., 2006). Finally, leaders can aspire to lead, but it is the followers' willingness to follow that makes them leaders (Kelley, 1988). Bolman and Deal (2003) summarizes this interdependent relationship in a simple statement "leaders make things happen, but things also make leaders happen" (p. 338).

Leadership has always been a topic of great interest throughout recorded human history. From ancient Western to Eastern civilizations, references to leadership have been found among the earliest writings (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Civilization after civilization believed that unlocking the mystery of leadership is the key to building endured societal success. However, these attempts continue to yield unsatisfactory results. The use of the scientific method in the latter half of the 20th century has failed to deliver a unified theory of leadership. The complex, dynamic, and intertwining effects of leaders, followers, situations, and environment continue making it difficult to understand the true causes, nature, and consequences of leadership. In *The Nature of Leadership*, Antonakis and his colleagues (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004) observed:

Complicating our task [as leadership researchers], however, is the fact that 100 years of leadership research has led to several paradigm shifts and a voluminous body of knowledge. Furthermore, on several occasions, scholars of leadership became quite frustrated by the large amount of false starts, incremental theoretical advances, and contradictory findings...Leadership researchers have struggled for most of the last century to put together an integrated, theoretically cohesive view

of the nature of leadership, invariably leading to disappointment in those who studied it. (p. 4)

Some researchers have argued that leadership, as a phenomenon, is best studied in a real-world context with consideration for environmental and situational factors, as there is no single leadership model that will fit all situations. In their book *The Nature of Organizational Leadership*, researchers Zaccaro and Klimoski (2001) noted:

If leadership were to be studied in situ (real life situation), researchers could then fully appreciate how the antecedents, consequences, and criteria of leadership change as a function of such variables as organizational level, organizational structure, environmental complexity, and cultural and societal parameters. (p. 3)

Citing the fact that repeated attempts to answer even the most basic, and fundamental, leadership question “Does leadership matter?” continues to yield mixed findings, Warsserman, Anand, and Nohria (2009) suggested that leadership cannot be studied outside of a context. Instead of asking if leadership matters, researchers should be asking under which contexts and situations do leadership matters.

The lack of a coherent definition of leadership after a century of scientific leadership study speaks volume to both the complexity of the phenomenon and the limitation of existing leadership models in capturing and explaining it. Bennis (1959) wrote:

Of all the hazy and confounding areas in social psychology, leadership theory undoubtedly contends for top nomination. And, ironically, probably more has been written and less is known about leadership than any other topic in the behavioral sciences. Always, it seems, the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. So we have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it..., and still the concept is not sufficiently defined. (p. 259)

In his highly influential book *Leadership*, the political leadership historian James McGregory Burns (1978) echoed Bennis's sentiment as he wrote "Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth" (p. 2).

In the continued quest for better models of leadership, some researchers (Calder, 1977; Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Kenney, Blascovich, Shaver, & Kenney, 1994; Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Pfeffer, 1977) have suggested a follower-centered perspective to leadership study. They argue that leadership is really about leadership perception, a phenomenon that is socially constructed in the mind of followers and observers to make sense of complex societal and organizational situations. Often, leadership perception has very little to do with the characteristics or behaviors of the leader being observed (Meindl et al., 1985). Leadership study, then, should be about understanding the process of collective construction and deconstruction of leadership perceptions among followers and observers in societal and organizational settings.

Researchers, who favor a follower-centered perspective on leadership, posit that understanding the mental process of leadership construction in the mind of followers is more important than understanding the characteristics or behaviors of designated leaders in leadership situations. To them it is not what leaders do that is important, but what followers and observers perceive these leaders do is. Follower-centered theories, such as implicit leadership (Eden & Leviatan, 1975), leadership attribution (Pfeffer, 1977), leadership categorization (Lord, Foti, & Philips, 1982), and romance of leadership (Meindl et al., 1985) theories, have made significant contribution to further our understanding of leadership. Romance of leadership theory is the focus of this study.

Romance of leadership is a theory of leadership and organization that focuses on implicit, idealized, belief about the influence of leader and leadership in the societies or organizations they lead. The theory postulates that followers and observers often possess a highly romanticized view of leadership and its role in society and organization (Meindl et al., 1985), and that leadership is the single most influential factor in the development, success, and failure of society and organization. Leadership is a prominent source of both credit and blame for all positive and negative organizational and societal outcomes and, vice versa, that these outcomes directly reflect the quality of leadership (Meindl et al., 1985). Successful organizations and societies are believed to be attributable to effective leadership, and unsuccessful societies and organizations are attributable to ineffective leadership.

Figure 1 illustrates a romance of leadership “curve”, capturing the conceptual relationship between the magnitude of organizational outcomes and people’s attribution of these outcomes to the actions of organizational or societal leadership. Through a combination of nature, nurture, and experience, people have implicit theories about the nature of the relationship between leadership and organization.

People who romanticize leadership tend to make exaggerated assessments and judgments about the effect of leadership on societal or organizational outcomes, ignoring considerations for the effect of other, possibly more influential, factors; thus committing something similar to what has been called the “fundamental attribution error” (Meindl, 1990, p. 172). The more extreme the societal or organizational outcomes being observed, the more exaggerated the assessments and judgments.

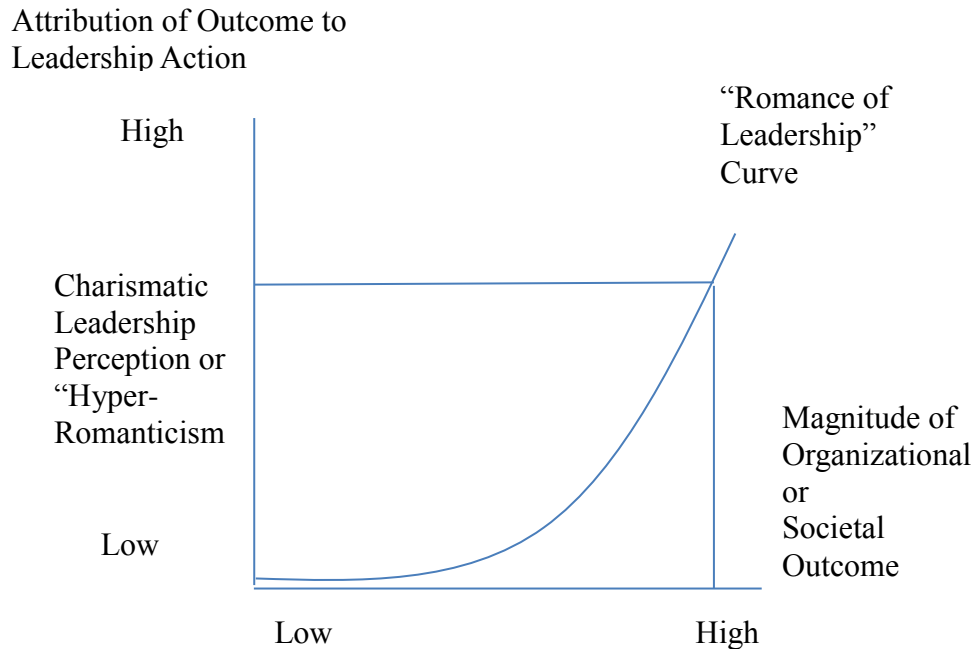


Figure 1. A conceptual model of the relationship between the magnitude of organizational or societal outcomes and people’s attribution of these outcomes to leadership actions

A consequence of romance of leadership is in followers and observers’ susceptibility or vulnerability to the influence of those holding leadership positions, especially under highly uncertain or abnormal conditions. For instance, leadership research found that when society or an organization is perceived to perform extremely well, people tend to be less critical and are more susceptible to the language and actions of incumbent leader. When society and organizations are under duress, people blame incumbent leaders and become more susceptible to the language and actions of emerging leaders (Bligh & Kohles, 2009; Bligh, Kohles, & Pillai, 2005).

Depending on the nature of the influence, such susceptibility can hurt or help society or organizations. High susceptibility to leadership among organization followers and observers is known to have played a critical role in the emergence of both

transformational leadership (Schyns, Felfe, & Blank, 2007) and destructive, or toxic, leadership (Lipman-Blumen, 2005). Romance of leadership is thus a two-edge sword that can lead to societal and organizational advancement or destruction.

Why do people idealize, or idolize, leaders and leadership? Researchers theorize that people's idealization comes from many sources, including personality, cultural indoctrination, social learning, and psychological needs exacerbated by situational factors. At the personal level, evidences suggest that people with strong personal characteristics, such as strong self-esteem and internal locus-of-control, are more likely to romanticize leadership as they project their leadership aspirations onto the role (Felfe, 2005). Those with a strong psychological need for safety and certainty are more likely to anchor their faith on leadership for guidance, direction, and a sense of self, especially during times of great changes and uncertainties (Lipman-Blumen, 2005). At the societal level, individualistic societies are more likely to attribute credit of organizational success to the effort of the individual leader at the top rather than of the organizations (Adler, 2002). Societies that emphasize heroic or messianic figures are more likely to produce a culture of strong leadership idolization (Lipman-Blumen, 2005).

Just how pervasive and enduring is romance of leadership? Commenting about the pervasiveness of the phenomenon, long-time leadership researcher Richard Hackman (Hackman, 2009) made this observation at a recent leadership colloquium at the Harvard Business School, organized as part of the school's centennial celebrations:

...lay observers, including many working managers, tend to attribute to leaders causal responsibility for system outcomes that actually maybe shaped by more powerful but less salient influences. This [romance of leadership] tendency is so strong that Ruth Wageman and I have given it a name: Leader Attribution Error. To the extent that we focus our research and teaching on the personal attributes

and behavioral styles of individuals who are widely viewed as great leaders...we perpetuate that attributional error. (p. 110)

The following three stories are provided as an illustration of the nature and effect of romance of leadership:

Since 2005, Harvard's Center for Public Leadership has been conducting nationwide surveys to measure the attitude of the American people toward leadership across different sectors, including business, military and government. In its 2009 report (Rosenthal, Moore, Montoya, & Maruskin, 2009), the Center found 45% of the Americans believed that the United States is heading in a wrong direction. More than 60% of them attributed the problem to the lack of effective leadership, indicating that the majority of the population blamed leadership for what they perceived as the decline of the nation. However, when these respondents were asked "In general, would you say that the problems we face today can be resolved through effective leadership?" Eighty-seven percent of them agreed, suggesting that despite their disappointment, most Americans still believe effective leadership is central to getting the nation back in the right direction (Rosenthal et al., 2009). This result suggests that, in the United States, there is a universal and deeply held social belief that leadership is central to organizational and societal success.

The case of the late Steve Jobs, the charismatic CEO of Apple Corporation, illustrates how organizational performance affects the perception of leadership effectiveness and how leadership idolization, in turn, affects the perception of organizational performance. The success of Apple in recent years, after the return of Steve Jobs to the CEO position in 1997, was phenomenal. Within a decade, the company recovered from the brink of bankruptcy to generate more than \$150 billion in shareholder

wealth. Its success made Jobs one of the most celebrated CEOs in the nation and, in 2009, Fortune Magazine named him “CEO of the Decade” (Lashinsky & Burke, 2009, p. 1). The causal relationship between Apple’s performance and the perception of Jobs as an extraordinary leader is sealed in the eyes of the public.

On January 14th, 2009 after Jobs’ unexpected announcement that he will need to take a medical leave of absence for health reason, Apple’s stock took an overnight dive of 4% in reaction to the news (Mintz, 2009). Subsequently, the company’s stock rallied on his returning to work. Similarly, a year earlier on October 3rd, 2008, Apple’s stock dropped by more than 5% in on a false report that Jobs suffered a heart attacked (Kessler, 2009). The dramatic drops and rises of Apple’s stock in the market on the news of Jobs’ health suggests a collective belief in the market that, at least in the case of Apple, leadership plays an extraordinary important factor in the perception of the company’s performance.

The rise and fall of Enron Corporation provides an interesting example of the negative consequence of romancing leadership. Enron’s overnight rise to “one of the world’s leading electricity, natural gas, pulp and paper, and communication companies” (Wikipedia, 2012, p. 1), and the nation’s seventh largest publicly-owned company with over 20,000 employees, was also phenomenal. Between 1990 and 2001, under the leadership of the late charismatic CEO Ken Lay, the company set a record of 1,400% return on investment, three times more than the gain of the S&P 500 during that same period. In 2000, the company reported over \$100 billion in revenue. Between 1996 and 2000 the company was named “America’s Most Innovative Company” by Fortune

magazine year-after-year (McLean & Elkind, 2006), and its CEO Ken Lay was mentioned as a possible candidate for the position of U.S. Secretary of Treasury in 2000.

Everything went very wrong for Enron in 2001. The discovery that the company was engaging in the biggest financial fraud in the history of the U.S. sent it into a tailspin to a total collapse. The sudden demise of Enron cost its “investors and employees over \$70 billion in lost capitalization and retirement benefits” (Frontain, 2010, p. 1).

How could something like Enron happen? McLean and Elkind, the former investment bank analyst who first raised the question about the company’s performance in 2001 (McLean, 2001) and an investigative reporter, pointed to a collective amnesia inside and outside of the organization during its ascension before the inevitable collapse. In their best-selling book *The Smartest Guys in the Room* (McLean & Elkind, 2004), the authors described a blind faith, driven by misguided collective romance of leadership, that was shared by all those involved:

Because the stock was rising, Enron’s executives were seen as brilliant. Because they were viewed as brilliant, all their new ideas had to be winners... The circle of people who knew – or should have known – that Enron’s glittering surface masked a different reality was surprisingly large. Much of what Enron did... was out in the open. Many of the analysts knew full well that the company’s earnings far outstripped the cash coming in the door. The bankers and investment bankers, who worked for the same firms as the analysts certainly understood what Enron was doing... The business press, which could have looked more closely at Enron’s financial statements, couldn’t be bothered; the media was utterly captivated by the company’s transformation from stodgy pipeline to new economy powerhouse. And of course there were any number of Enron’s own employees who could see for themselves how the company was making its numbers. And yet, they all chose not to make the logical leap, to see where it was inevitably headed. Instead, they all chose to believe. Everyone loved Enron. (pp. 229-230)

Stories like these, in combination with quantitative results documented in formal research studies on romance of leadership, suggest that the human tendency to

romanticize leadership is systemic, and a strong, pervasive and enduring phenomenon (Meindl, 1990; Meindl et al., 1985). If this is true, the effect of this systemic phenomenon on leadership measurements must be factored into followers and observers' interview and survey assessments. Any final assessment or judgment about the quality of the leaders being evaluated, without consideration for the romance of leadership effect, should be suspect.

For instance, when a particular organizational leader is assessed as exhibiting strong charismatic leadership, is it possible that such an assessment is influenced as much by the assessor's high tendency to romanticize leadership as by his or her observations of this leader's specific behaviors? When the level of direct interaction between a leader and the assessor are further limited by organizational or societal hierarchy, is it possible that assessor's tendency to romanticize leadership has an even larger influence on his or her assessment of the leader? Leadership research confirms that followers' implicit theories about leadership do affect the judgment of their leaders (Nye, 2005). Meindl (1990), in his formulation of Romance of Leadership theory, suggested that the high popularity of charismatic and transformational leadership reflects a case of public "hyper-romanticism" (p. 182).

To understand the pervasiveness and durability of the romance of leadership phenomenon, it is important to search for evidential linkage between the phenomenon and potential attributing factors that are rooted in human nature, experience and cultural indoctrination. Exploring the role and impact of individual personality, acquired experience and cultural indoctrination on leadership emergence and effectiveness has had an enduring and fruitful history in leadership research. This history, covering the latter

half of the 20th century into leadership research, emphasizes human personality traits as the dominant factor (Hogan, 2007). Research and the development of leadership theories and trainings, based on the belief that leadership is a learnable skill, indicate the possibility of improvement with appropriate education and experience (Katz, 1974). Organizational and societal cultural factors enable leadership emergence or result in the enhancement of leadership effectiveness (Hartog & Dickson, 2004).

Personality attributes, or traits, that have been shared among recognized leaders through the ages have occupied the bulk of modern leadership research work in the latter half of the 20th century (Zaccaro, 2007). As McCrae (2000) described, personality traits are the “stable, pervasive, and biologically based [psychological] characteristics” (p. 11) that define the a person and collectively differentiate him or her from others in terms of “overt style of thinking, feeling, and acting” (p. 12). While there is continued debate among researchers regarding the degree to which personality affects leadership emergence and effectiveness relative to other factors, there is little disagreement that personality is an important contributing factor to leadership. For instance, repeated findings support a strong linkage between assertiveness, a personality trait, and leadership emergence. The study of personality traits as an antecedent factor of emergence of leadership is an attempt to find a linkage between people’s enduring psychological characteristics and their tendency to over attribute organizational and societal outcomes to leadership (Schyns & Sanders, 2007).

Maturity, or experience, reflects the state of psychological development of a person. Mature or experienced individuals are perceived to have a more realistic understanding of what organization leaders can and cannot do, taking into considerations

both internal factors such as followers' attitudes and capability, cultural limitations, and the external pressure of market competitors and governmental regulations. A study of the relationship between maturity level, as measured in age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and the level of seniority within an organization, and romance of leadership will shine a light on how a person's romance of leadership tendency varies over time (Meindl, 1990).

Culture, or cultural background, is an important influencing factor on leadership perceptions. Recent cross-cultural leadership studies have found supports for different relationships between societal culture and preference for leadership style. For instance, the GLOBE study found a universal preference for charismatic and transformational leadership style across all societal culture (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002). However, a preference for other leadership styles, the same study found, could be restricted to specific societal cultures. Such finding suggests that the tendency to romanticize leadership could be a universal human phenomenon that crosses societal cultures or is restricted within particular societal cultures (Meindl et al., 1985). A study of the relationship between romance of leadership and culture could shine a light on how the phenomenon operates across different societal cultures.

This study will be conducted in a real-world setting of a multinational organization. With the rise of multinational organizations, i.e., organizations whose workforces are made up of working people from many cultures, collaborating offices that are spread out across multiple nations, and products that are delivered to different markets within different nations, the responsibility for organizational leaders has become much more challenging (Hartog & Dickson, 2004). According to Adler (2002), effective

global managers must develop a wider range of leadership skills in order to maintain effectiveness across different situations. Specially:

Based on the cultural context of their operations, global managers must constantly decide to use more directive or democratic styles of leadership, more individual- or group-oriented motivation schemes, more long-term or short-term criteria for decision making. Their decisions, to be most effective and most appropriate, must depend on the particular culture, industry, organization, and individuals involved (p. 195) ... Although some principles of leadership, motivation, and decision making apply almost everywhere, the ways in which leaders adapt them to local conditions and work situations determine their success or failure. (p. 164)

To build collective emotional commitment, organizational leaders have to be able to create charismatic effects across different cultures. Research supports the observation that effective leader behavior varies across different societies, as documented by Hartog and Dickson (2004). The level of variance in romance of leadership across different cultural groups within an organization suggests different degrees of susceptibility relative to the effect of the leadership process. Whether this variance is significant or not is of interest to this study. Another issue of interest in the study is the degree to which the personality, cultural background, and the maturity of followers influence their tendency to romanticize leadership within a multinational organization.

This study is built on existing works on romance of leadership. While there are several studies on antecedents of romance of leadership (Felfe, 2005; Meindl, 1990; Schilling, 2007; Schyns & Sanders, 2007), the number of studies remained very limited and the results reported have been mixed.

Background of the Problem

In a recently published review on the state of romance of leadership research, Bligh and Schyns (2007) concluded that much more research on romance of leadership is still needed. In a review of articles published in the prominent *Leadership Quarterly*

(LQ), Lowe and Gardner (2000) also noted that romance of leadership has not gathered a lot of interest in the leadership research community, as number of romance of leadership publications account for only 4% of all published articles in the LQ (Lowe & Gardner, 2000). After a period of dormancy in early 2000s, the topic of romance of leadership once again enjoys a resurgence with a new set of research publications (Bligh, Kohles, Pearce, Justin, & Stovall, 2007; Bligh et al., 2005; Bligh & Schyns, 2007; Felfe, 2005; Felfe, Petersen, & Felfe, 2007; Gray & Densten, 2007; Haslam et al., 2001; Jackson & Jackson, 2005; Kulich, Ryan, & Haslam, 2007; J. R. Meindl, 2004; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 2006; Meindl & Shamir, 2007; Schilling, 2007; Schyns & Bligh, 2007; Schyns et al., 2007; Schyns et al., 2008; Schyns, Meindl, & Croon, 2007; Shamir, Pillai, Bligh, & Uhl-Bien, 2007; Weick, 2007).

One area for which the Bligh and Schyns' (2007) review specifically called for additional investigations was the antecedents of romance of leadership. Only two studies were found in their review. Bligh and Schyns (2007) suggested that further investigation of the influence of personality, occupations, work experience, culture, situation, and gender on romance of leadership is needed. Since the publication of their review, additional studies on romance of leadership's antecedents have been reported (Bligh & Schyns, 2007; Schyns et al., 2008). However, the number of studies remained very limited and the reported results have been equivocal.

In a larger picture, the need for additional studies of followers in the leadership process was raised by many in the leadership research community (Calder, 1977; Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Hollander, 1992; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Kelley, 1988; Lord & Emrich, 2000; Pfeffer, 1977). Unfortunately, the level of enthusiasm for follower-centered

leadership studies remains much lower than that of leader-centered studies (Howell & Shamir, 2005).

A quick keyword search on ProQuest's dissertations and theses databases, using "leadership" for a title keyword, yielded 12,648 documents. The same search using the keyword "followership" yielded 30. Similarly, a search for book titles containing the keyword "leadership" on Amazon.com yielded 340,259 titles, and the keyword "followership" yielded 2,539 titles. While these quick counts are far from scientifically sound, the large discrepancy does suggest that there is significantly greater level of interest in, or enthusiasm about, the leader over the follower. Lord, Brown, & Freiberg (1999) made a similar observation: "Leadership is widely recognized to be a social process that depends on both leaders and followers..., yet the follower remains an under explored source of variance in understanding leadership processes" (p. 167).

Purpose and Importance of Study

This study answered the call for more research on the followers in leadership situations and specifically for more research on the antecedents of romance of leadership (Bligh & Schyns, 2007). The study explored the relationship between romance of leadership and the followers' personality, maturity, and cultural background. The followers' tendency to romanticize leadership is measured by the revised Romance of Leadership Scale developed for cross-cultural testing (Schyns et al., 2007). Personality traits were measured by the Big-Five Inventory (John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991). Maturity, or experience, was measured by attributes such as age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level within the

organization. Cultural background was measured by a person's home region and culture identity.

Research on antecedents of romance of leadership is important for several reasons. First, as pointed out by several researchers (Meindl et al., 1985), leadership studies for many years have been lopsidedly focused on leaders with little consideration for followers. More leadership studies, focused on followers, are needed to help counter-balance the mountain of leader-centered studies on leadership and to provide a necessary foundation for a more balanced view of leadership focusing equally on both leaders and followers (Meindi, 1998b). Follower-centered research on leadership today has produced significant findings that support the argument that followers are active agents in the leadership process. Further research on the follower's role in the leadership process promises new interesting and fruitful results.

Second, personality research has a long tradition in leadership studies and has yielded important insights into the personal characteristics of leaders (Zaccaro, 2007). Personality traits such as drive, ambition, energy, tenacity, and initiative are recognized as important contributing factors of leadership success (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). This study continues this rich tradition of focusing on personality, but focuses on the follower rather than the leader. Some researchers have suggested that the personality of followers affects their susceptibility to particular leadership styles, such as charismatic and despotic leadership (Lipman-Blumen, 2005; Meindl, 1990). Focusing on the followers' personality allows for the development of more integrative personality theories of leadership, which includes consideration for the personalities of both the leaders and followers.

Third, this study advances research on follower-centered leadership theories in two ways: First, it provided further validation for some of the previously found relationship between personality, maturity and cultural background, and romance of leadership. Research into the antecedents of romance of leadership remains limited and with mixed results. Second, the study extends the body of knowledge of the pervasiveness and durability of romance of leadership. A study of the relationship between personality and romance of leadership can shed light on the question as to whether or not there is a durable biological basis of support for romance of leadership. A study of the relationship between maturity and romance of leadership can shed light on the durability of romance of leadership through time. Finally, a study on the relationship between cultural background and romance of leadership improves our understanding of the universality of the phenomenon.

Fourth, a study of romance of leadership in the context of a multinational organization had not been previously reported. Some leadership researchers have argued that leadership is such a complex phenomenon, involving many interdependent factors, that the study of leadership is best done in a real-world context (Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). Studying leadership in a real-world context promises to provide researchers more useful insights into what is really going on “out there.”

Roth and Kostova (2003) found that multinational organizations are increasingly being used for leadership research when *contextual heterogeneity*, *intraorganizational complexity*, and *individual variability* are of interest. These researchers also observed that in multinational organizations, “[A] plurality at the individual level is reflected in the wide variety of backgrounds, cognitive templates and biases, values and beliefs,

experiences and role of MNC [multinational corporation] employees” (p. 888). Such “plurality” provides an ideal opportunity for validating the universality of existing leadership theories. The universality of romance of leadership is of interest in this study.

More specifically, Roth and Kostova (2003) suggests that the use of a multinational organization allows the researcher to conduct an analysis on multiple distinct levels. For instance, at the company level, using a multinational organization provides the researcher with a diverse sample of employees from different countries for universal analysis. At the regional level, a multinational organization gives the researcher an opportunity to do cross-region variance analysis. Multilevel analysis of romance of leadership is also of interest to this study.

Finally, a single cross-cultural study using a multinational organization provides for a more consistent research design, instrument usage, measurements, data collection procedures, and data analysis. According to Schyns and colleagues (2007), cross-cultural analysis of romance of leadership findings have been difficult due to variations in research and instrument design, data collection, and data analysis across different studies. Hofstede (1997) found that research on national cultural differences can be done effectively through the use of multinational organizations. Reflecting on his ground breaking research on national-level cultural dimensions, Hofstede addressed the use of multinational organizations for cross-cultural studies:

At first sight it may seem surprising that employees of a multinational – a very special kind of people – could serve for identifying differences in national value systems. However, from one country to another they represent almost perfectly matched samples: they are similar in all respects except nationality, which makes the effect of nationality differences in their answers stand out unusually clearly. (p. 13)

In addition to enhancing existing leadership theories, this study sought to offer several practical contributions. First, an understanding of the antecedents of romance of leadership will enable improvements in leadership assessment practice. Today's leadership development in organizations often relies on a rating of leaders by followers, peers and supervisors, in addition to self-assessment. Rating objectivity is maintained through the use of multiple raters, a normalization of the quantitative data collected and, in some situations, a detailed follow up of the qualitative assessments. Many times raters remain anonymous.

However, multi-rater questionnaires tend to be susceptible to systemic bias. Research evidences suggest that romance of leadership is one such systemic bias when it comes to the rating of leadership (Bligh & Kohles, 2009; Bligh et al., 2005; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Meindl et al., 1985). In an article written on the practical and theoretical consequences of implicit leadership on leadership measurement, Phillips and Lord (Phillips & Lord, 1986) warned that leadership ratings can be skewed because of a combination of people's tendency to reach for simple answers to complex problems (i.e., cognitive simplifications) and their implicit theories of leadership and organization. Regarding the development of leadership intervention programs, the authors cautioned:

Real-world consumers of leadership theories must carefully assess the empirical basis of interventions that attempt to change leadership behavior. Before accepting any leadership training program, managers should carefully assess whether the research being used as supporting evidence accurately measured specific behaviors or merely reflected inferences based on raters' ILTs [Implicit Leadership Theories] and classifications of ratees. (p. 37)

Shamir (2007) voiced a similar caution in the context of leadership rating:

To the extent that followers play an active role in the leadership process, they are also responsible for the consequences of leadership. A leadership evaluation that

focuses only on the leader is likely to attribute too much credit or blame to the leader. (p. xxix)

To a leader being rated, awareness of the effect of romance of leadership and the antecedents of romance of leadership provides additional contextual information to help the leader make sense of the often contradicting feedbacks from others. To the raters, awareness of how their personality, maturity, and cultural background can influence their evaluation of leaders will help them to produce more objective feedback. To the organization, awareness of the present and degree of collective romance of leadership allows it to account for such systemic bias in reviewing multi-rater leadership ratings.

Second, the study of romance of leadership is more important than ever in today's economy where CEO scapegoating, a term referring to the practice of firing of CEOs after the company's performance goes sour (Pfeffer, 2009), has become a very common business practice. Studies of the organization's performance impact after actual leader firing showed no correlation between these two variables, as most organizations did not improve after the blamed CEOs were replaced (Wiersema, 2002). In some cases, CEO replacement backfired, leaving the troubled companies in worse condition.

Yet this cycle of blaming, firing, and failed replacement of organization leaders continues to gain popularity. Research on political leaders has found that, under crisis condition, romance of leadership can play an active role in the blaming of incumbent leaders and an exaggeration of the perception of candidate leaders (Bligh & Kohles, 2009; Bligh, Kohles, & Meindl, 2004; Bligh et al., 2005). Research of the antecedents of romance of leadership can provide further insights into this important issue.

Third, to understand romance of leadership is to understand our internal theories, or mental models, of organizations through which we interpret social and organizational

phenomenon. Mental models a cohesive and evolving picture of the world in the mind of a person, constructed to make sense of all previous experiences and to support dealing with new experiences (Ryckman, 1978). They are our internal causal interpretation of how the world works. Mental models affect our attentions, sense making, perceptions, judgments and actions, and are typically difficult to changes (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Senge, 2006). Not understanding these mental models can lead to inattention, or the misunderstanding, of the real issues leading to incorrect perceptions of reality, incorrect judgments and counterproductive actions. All this can result in detrimental organizational and societal outcomes. Surfacing deeply entrenched mental models is critical for individual and organizational learning (Senge, 2006).

Finally, research found that susceptible followers facilitate the emergence of toxic leaders whose leadership decisions bring detrimental consequences on the organizations and societies (Hinrichs, 2007; Lipman-Blumen, 2005, 2007; Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007). Romance of leadership speaks to a tendency that enhances followers' susceptibility to leadership, transformational and destructive alike (Lipman-Blumen, 2007). To prevent the emergence of destructive leaders in organization, it is important to understand the nature of this susceptibility to leadership among followers (Hinrichs, 2007). Armed with this understanding, organizations can devise means to enhance their employees' desire for transformational leadership and to reduce the risk of them become susceptible to destructive leadership. These include improving the leadership selection process, developing stronger employees, and establishing better checks and balances in the institutions (Padilla et al., 2007). A study of the antecedents of romance of leadership

can provide practical and beneficial insights for organizations in need of leadership changes.

Problem Statement

What relationship, if any, exists between personality, maturity, and cultural background and romance of leadership in a multinational organization?

Research Hypotheses

This study focused on three personal attributes that address the durability and universality of romance of leadership: personality traits, maturity, and cultural background. The following research hypotheses are the basis for this study:

1. Is there a correlation between romance of leadership and the Big-Five personality trait factors?
2. Is there a correlation between romance of leadership and maturity?
3. What are the differences in cultural background with regard to romance of leadership?
4. Is there a correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants sharing a common cultural background?
5. Is there a correlation between maturity and romance of leadership among participants sharing a common cultural background?
6. Is there a correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors, maturity, culture background, and romance of leadership?

Clarification of Terms

The following operational meanings are defined for this study:

Big-Five Inventory Scale: A 44-item personality test developed by Oliver P. John and V. Benet-Martinez to measure the Big-Five personality trait factors (John et al., 1991).

Big-Five personality trait factors (Five-Factor Model): Five broad factors or dimensions of personality that categorize all known personality traits. The factors of Big-Five are Extraversion, Agreeableness, Openness, Conscientiousness, and Neuroticism (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008).

Culture Identity: “The identity of a group or culture or of an individual as far as one is influenced by one’s belonging to a group or culture” (Wikipedia, 2010a, p. 1). In this study, culture identity denotes the national culture to which a participant believes he or she is most closely identified with.

Follower-centered perspective of leadership: A leadership perspective that focuses primarily on the followers, and not the leaders. Romance of leadership is a follower-centered theory.

Gender: The classification of study participants into male or female for comparison.

Home Region: An individual’s regional office where he or she receives a paycheck, within the company.

Job Family Title (JFT): A level number that reflects the seniority of an employee in the company. This level number is assigned by the company to an employee and is standardized across all regional offices. For this study, the range of values for a job family title is from level 0 to above level 6.

Leadership process: A process that emphasizes leadership as a relational product of an interactive process that takes place between a leader and his or her followers. Through this interaction the leader influences a group of followers to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2007).

Maturity: A developmental state in reasoning and judgment that characterizes human mental complexity (Kegan & Lahey, 2010). More mature individuals rely more on cognitive reasoning to make decision; less mature individuals rely more on emotion. In this study, a person's maturity also represents his or her level of work and career experience. Maturity, or experience, in this study is operationalized by age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level within the organization.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ): A leadership scale developed by Bernard M. Bass and Bruce J. Avolio for the purpose of measuring transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

NEO-Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI): A 60-item psychological personality inventory developed by Paul T. Costa, Jr. and Robert R. McCrae for measuring personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1985).

New Job Family Title (NJFT): Similar to JFT but with some levels aggregated to make sure that there will be enough participants per level for statistical analysis.

Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R): A 240-item psychological personality inventory developed by Paul T. Costa, Jr. and Robert R. McCrae to measure the Five Factor Model of personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1985).

Personality: “A dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in various situations” (Wikipedia, 2010b, p. 1).

Romance of leadership: The susceptibility of the followers to the influence of their leaders. This susceptibility is measured as a group tendency to believe that leadership is the central causal factor of organization’s performance.

Romance of Leadership Scale (RLS): A leadership perception scale introduced by James Meindl to measure the level of leadership romanticism among followers (Meindl, 1998a). In this study, the 17 leadership statements within in this scale that make up its core factor will be utilized.

Seniority Level within the Organization: A person’s level of seniority as recognized by the company. In this study, a higher level of seniority means a greater level of established working experience and maturity that come with higher authority and greater responsibility within the company (Wikipedia, 2010c).

Chapter Summary

This study answered the call for more follower-centered research in leadership and the specific call for more research into the antecedents, or causes, of romance of leadership. Romance of leadership denotes the human tendency to overemphasize leaders and leadership in the development of implicit causal theories of organizations and societies. This overemphasis on leadership can skew people’s assessment of social or organizational phenomena. Those with highly romantic notion of leadership will tend to over-attribute credit and blame on leadership for organizational and societal outcomes, despite evidences of other non-leadership factors having more important effects.

Misinterpretation and misjudgment of organization and societal phenomena can lead to pursuance of counterproductive actions.

Romance of leadership can be affected by many antecedent factors including personality, culture, experience, and situations. Understanding the antecedents to romance of leadership will help to improve our understanding of how and when people come to have such idealized view of leadership. This study focuses on three key personal factors: personality traits, maturity (or experience), and cultural background (region or culture).

A study of personality traits and romance of leadership can improve the understanding of the degree of influence of innate human psychological characteristics on the tendency to romanticize leadership. By looking into the relationship between maturity and the romance of leadership, this study attempts to improve our understanding of the durability of the romance of leadership tendency. A consideration of the effect of culture will improve our understanding the level of persistency of this tendency across different national cultures.

Chapter 2: Review of Related Literature

My purpose here is not to dispute the optimism [about leadership]...but rather to make the observation that it is easier to believe in leadership than to prove it. It appears that in the face of equivocality, many of us are nevertheless able to sustain a belief in the significance of leaders and leadership. (Meindl, 1990, p. 161)

Chapter Overview

The theoretical foundation of this research came from the school of follower-centered as an approach to general leadership study, which argues that leadership is first and foremost a construct developed in the mind of followers, individually or collectively, for the purpose of making sense of complex organizational and societal phenomena. From this constructionist point-of-view, leadership, or the lack of leadership, is often used by followers as convenient explanation for the observations of complex organizational and societal situations and outcomes that are difficult to decipher. Romance of leadership, a follower-centered leadership perspective, argues that the tendency for leadership attribution is both an innate and cultural-developed human tendency that can only be explained through deeper understanding of the followers' leadership construction process.

This chapter reviews related literature in leadership, personality, and culture research to provide context for understanding the concepts and issues that are significant to this study.

The first section of this review covers romance of leadership theory within the context of existing leadership perspectives. The topics covered in this section include (a) a summary of key leader-centered perspectives on leadership, (b) a short introduction of the romance of leadership theory and its theoretical roots, (c) research findings on

romance of leadership, (d) the relationship between romance of leadership and charismatic/transformational leadership, and (e) the dark side of romance of leadership.

The second section covers personality, which includes (a) the role of personality in leadership studies, (b) the Big-Five Trait taxonomy and Big-Five theory of personality, and (c) the relationship between Big-Five and romance of leadership.

The third section discusses followers' demographic factors, including followers' maturity and cultural background.

The last section compares the romance of leadership as a concept to groupthink.

Leadership as a Perception of Followers

Many leadership researchers agree that the role of the follower in the leadership process has been insufficiently considered (Howell & Shamir, 2005; Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2001). Major leadership theories developed in the last half of the 20th century tend to ignore the role of the follower completely. In studies where the impact of the follower was considered, such impact was often treated as moderator or mediator of the relationship between the leaders and organizational outcomes (Shamir, 2007). As the result, some researchers argue that our traditional view of leadership has been skewed by leader-centric models that focus solely on what a leader does to followers (Brown & Hosking, 1986; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Such a view is inherently incomplete, and the leadership phenomenon can never be fully understood without adequate consideration for followership (Heller & Stein, 1982; Kupers, 2007). Appendix A provides a short summary of some prominent leadership theories that were developed out of leader-centric models.

The lack of interest in the roles of followers in leadership studies was noted by several leadership researchers. For instance, Burns (1978) wrote that “the leadership approach tends often unconsciously to be elitist; it projects heroic figures against the shadowy background of drab, powerless masses [that are the followers]” (p. 3). Howell and Shamir (2005) made a similar observation:

Many writers agree that leadership is a relationship that is jointly produced by leader and followers. However, beyond paying lip service to the importance of followers, few scholars have attempted to theoretically specify and empirically assess the role of followers in the leadership process. (p. 1)

Rising up from the dissatisfaction with the leader-centered leadership theories is a set of follower-centered theories that focuses on studying the roles and influences of followers in the leadership process. These included Leadership (Eden & Leviatan, 1975), Leadership Attribution (Calder, 1977), Leadership Categorization (Lord, Binning, Rush, & Thomas, 1978), and Romance of Leadership (Meindl et al., 1985).

Three common characteristics, shared among follower-centered theories, distinguish them from leader-centered theories: First, instead of focusing on the leader, these theories primarily focus on the follower. For example, Implicit Leadership theory focuses on understanding leadership stereotypes that exist in the minds of organizational followers and observers and how these stereotypes affect their expectations and their perceptions of actual leaders (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). Romance of leadership theory, on the other hand, studies the causes and nature of the individual’s tendency to romanticize the leadership concept and how such romanticism affects their assessments and judgments of organizational and societal phenomena (Meindl, 1995).

Second, follower-centered theories seek to explain people’s subjective perception of leader and leadership. Tosi, Mero, and Rizzo (2000) define perception as:

[a person's] psychological process of creating an internal picture of the external world. It is the way that we organize information about people and things, the attribution of properties to them on the basis of information and the way we make cause/effect attributions, about them. It is the process of interpreting what information our senses provide to us so as to give meaning to the environment we are in. The resulting interpretation is the perceiver's reality, and even though several people may observe the same environment the perception of it can vary widely from person to person. (p. 68)

Perception reflects a subjective interpretation of observations that is often colored by factors associating with observers rather than the observed leader. As the result, according to Meindl (1995), the differences in leadership evaluations produced by observers should be considered as reflecting the differences in leadership perceptions rather than differences in the actual behaviors of the leader. Factors that can affect peoples' perception, and rating, of leadership in organizations or societies can come from personality, culture, experience and situations.

Third, instead of advocating for replacement of traditional leadership-centered theories, follower-centered theories seek a complementary position. They are developed to shed light on the "missing half" (p. 171) of the leadership equation, the followers (Jackson & Guthey, 2007). For instance, leader-centered perspective on transformational leadership focuses on leadership attributes and behaviors that will help to elevate organizational commitments to an emotional level far beyond mere transactional (Bass, 1985; B. M. Bass & Avolio, 1990; J. Conger & Kanungo, 1987; J. A. Conger, 1999). Followers, from the view of Transformational Leadership theory, are treated collectively as susceptible recipients of leadership actions (Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000).

As a complementary perspective, Romance of Leadership theory focuses on the social process in which leadership charisma is constructed in the mind of the followers (Meindl, 1990). Such a leadership construction process might have been triggered by

situational crises and emphasized by personal or societal tendencies to romanticize leadership. The conflation of perceived crisis, high romanticized tendency, and other factors creates an atmosphere that is most receptive to the emergence of charismatic leaders. Leadership charisma emergence, in such a case, might have everything to do with personal, cultural, and situational factors and have very little to do with the actual behaviors of the leader (Bligh et al., 2004; Bligh et al., 2005).

Romance of Leadership Theory

The late James Meindl, the father of romance of leadership theory, postulated that there is a prevailing tendency among followers and observers in organizations or societies to have a heroic, larger-than-life view of leadership in organizations and societies (Meindl et al., 1985). Meindl (2004) explained romance of leadership in a commentary, shortly before his passing:

[Romance of leadership describes] a collective commitment to the concept of leadership for understanding organizations and their performance...this commitment is manifested as a causal attribution, entailing a strong inclination to reference leaders and leadership when accounting for the fates and fortunes of groups and organizations. (p. 463)

Leaders, in the eyes of romanticized followers and observers, are the primary determining factors of organizational or social outcomes. That is, organizational or societal failure is interpreted mainly as the result of failed leadership and, vice versa, organizational or societal successes are interpreted mainly as the result of successful leadership. Such a tendency often leads to over-attribution of organizational and social outcomes to the leadership factor, and to under-consideration of other possibilities as potentially more influencing factors (Meindl, 1990).

Romance of leadership theory, as articulated by Meindl (1990), is an implicit theory of organization, as “[it] focuses attention on the role of leadership factors in people’s assumptions and expectations concerning the way organizations ought and do operate” (p. 162). The theory recognizes the prominence role leadership has achieved in organizations and societies as a shared vehicle for which all complex organizational and social issues are interpreted. The goal of the romance of leadership perspective then, according to Meindl (1990), is to “explore the causes, nature, and consequences of that prominence and the commitment to leadership it implies” (p. 162).

Meindl (1990) argued that leadership is a social construct, a subjective creation in the collective mind of followers and observers through causal attribution processes, trying to make sense of complex organizational and societal realities. Leadership is thus a perception of reality rather than the actual reality itself. Talking about leadership is only meaningful in the context of followers’ perceptions of the phenomenon, subject to underlying influencing factors behind their collective interpretations of the actual observed phenomenon (Meindl, 1990).

Human tendency to romanticize leadership is a function of dispositional, cultural, experiential and situational factors. Dispositional factors that influence this tendency include factors such as personal traits and motives (Felfe, 2005; Meindl, 1990). Cultural factors, such as attention of the media on leadership or teaching that glorify heroic leaders, is known to have an influence on the population’s opinions toward leadership (Chen & Meindi, 1991; Meindl et al., 1985). Situational factors, such as crisis and uncertainties, can temporarily heighten people’s tendency to seek out leadership (Bligh et al., 2004; Bligh et al., 2005; Pillai, 1996).

In addition, this human tendency also comes from accumulated experience. Lipman-Blumen's (2005) study on why people tend to seek leaders and leadership, even despotic ones, found that individual and collective psychological needs and fears drive the rationalization process to justify the need for leadership. In time, this rationalization becomes harden control myths that permanently lock-in a need-for-leadership perception.

Leadership studies found that impression management has become a common practice by organization leaders to win positive public perceptions (Bass, 1985 ; Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998; Gray & Densten, 2007; R. House, 1977b; Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney, & Blascovich, 1996). Leaders, according to Gray and Densten (2007), play an active role in the development of shared leadership perceptions among followers. They achieve greater influence on followers by promoting aspects of their behaviors that are congruent with publicly shared views of the desirable behaviors of a "leader-worthy-of-influence" (p. 560) and downplay those that are not congruent with those reflected in the shared view.

Gray and Densten (2007) suggested that, through impression management, leaders "woo" followers by creating "a frame of reference for followers so that ...[they can] appear successful in the eyes of followers" (p. 575). Gardner and Cleavenger (1998) found that the impression management strategies of exemplification and ingratiation were positively correlated to a perception of transformational leadership. Strategies of intimidation and self-promotion were negatively related.

The interest of leadership researchers on impression management reflects the recognition that leadership, at least in the mind of some leaders, is as much about the

perceptions constructed in the mind of followers and observers as the characteristic and behaviors of their leader.

Roots of Romance of Leadership

Social constructivism theory. Romance of Leadership theory has its root in personal and social construction theories of psychology. George Kelley first articulated the view that a person is an applied scientist who always attempts to predict events (Ryckman, 1978). His Psychology of Personal Constructs theory postulated that people constantly attempt to make sense of past and present experiences in order to interpret and predict future events. Through observation of similarities and contrasts, individuals develop their personal psychological constructs representing their own theories of the world. People then make predictions based on their personalized theories (Ryckman, 1978).

Kelley advanced a philosophical principle known as *constructive alternativism* (Kelly, 1963), which claims that there is no objective reality or absolute truth to be discovered. There is subjective reality or relative truth, created by efforts to construe events, that interprets phenomena in order to make sense of them (Boeree, 2006; Kelly, 1963).

Deriving from Kelly's (1963) constructive alternativism are three important implications for romance of leadership: First, the personal construction systems behind the romance of leadership are malleable as new observations and are constantly used to test against their underlying causal explanations. Disconfirmation can lead to change in the personal construction systems. It means romance of leadership is affected by experience.

Second is the potential absence of objectivity in the personal construction process. Like all personal constructs, an individual's leadership construct does not need to reflect any objective reality. Romance of leadership is about the perception of leadership and how that perception is used as context for interpreting and judging events.

Third, romance of leadership is personalized. How each individual perceives leadership is a function of his or her personal construction system, developed within the mind, through personal experiences and learning.

Leadership attribution theory. Romance of leadership also has its roots in attribution theory of leadership. Advanced by leadership theorists such as Calder, McElroy, and Pfeffer (Calder, 1977; McElroy, 1982; Pfeffer, 1977), attribution theory of leadership claims that leadership is the result of people attributing causes to organizational events to satisfy their inherent psychological needs for explanations (McElroy, 1982). Leaders are thus symbolic figures representing causation of social events in the mind of followers (Pfeffer, 1977). As a result, leadership attribution theorists argued that leadership study should really be about people's perceptual process, i.e., how people make inferences about and react to the leadership phenomena (Calder, 1977; Pfeffer, 1977). Leadership attribution is a generalized and pervasive human tendency that could and should be measured and accounted for in leadership research (Pfeffer, 1977).

Several leadership studies support the arguments put forth by leadership attribution theorists that there is no correlation, or inverse correlation in some cases, between the relationship between leadership perception and actual leadership contributions established to effect organizational outcomes (Comstock & Scott, 1977;

Haslam et al., 1998; Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Lieberman & O'Connor, 1972; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977; Wall, Jackson, & Clegg, 1986).

Pfeffer (1977) advanced three possible explanations for the limitation of actual leadership influence in organizations: (a) homogeneous leadership selection criteria, (b) strong organizational culture, and (c) strong external factors. First, people are selected to the leadership roles by an organizational selection processes that tends to be driven by collective conformance expectation, i.e., only those candidates that fit the conformance expectations of the organization gets the jobs. Second, once selected, leaders function within an existing organizational culture and power structure that further constraints the actions they can take. Third, during the leader's tenancy, there are many external factors that can affect the performance of organizations beyond the control of organization leaders including economic condition, market competitions and governmental regulations.

Presence of Romance of Leadership

Past studies in leadership have found strong evidential supports for leadership attribution theories, including romance of leadership. Earlier works on leadership attribution done by Eden and Leviatan (1975) and Lord, Binning, Rush, and Thomas (1978) showed that raters carry preconceived theories of leadership that affect their evaluation of leaders. In the Eden and Leviatan's (1975) study, participants were asked to describe the characteristics of an imaginary leader of a fictitious organization. The study found that participants' character descriptions of imaginary leaders matched the leadership profiles captured in studies of actual leaders. The study concluded that

implicit theories of leadership are at play and have significant influence on peoples' perceptions of leadership.

In the study done by Lord et al. (1978), participants were given fictitious performance information on a group they had observed and asked to evaluate the group leader. When participants were told that the group performed well, they rated the group leader more favorable. When participants were told that same group performed poorly, they rated the group leader less favorable. This finding leads to the following question: How much of a leadership rating is attributed to the actual actions performed by the leader being rated and how much of it is attributed to implicit thought process of the rater?

Meindl et al. (1985) expanded on the work of attribution theorists to develop romance of leadership as a human disposition that can be exacerbated by situational factors such as performance cues and crisis. Meindl and colleagues' (1985) archival studies found correlations between leadership perception and organizational performance. An archival study on the popular press (Study 1) found that business media published more leadership-related stories in the year when exceptional organizational or industrial performance was observed. Another archival study on dissertation topics (Study 2) found a significant increase in the number of doctoral students selecting leadership-related dissertation topics for their studies after each major economical downturn. A third archival study of business periodicals (Study 3) found a significant increase in the number of general publications related to leadership during economic up-turns in the U.S. between 1958 and 1983 (Meindl et al., 1985).

In the same article, Meindl and colleagues (1985) reported that evidences of romance of leadership were also found in the experiments they conducted. In their experimental studies (Study 4, 5, and 6), participants were provided with performance information on fictitious companies and asked to rate their leaders. All three studies showed that the larger the magnitude of the organization's performance, in either a positive or a negative direction, the greater the attribution of organizational outcomes to the action of its leader (Meindl et al., 1985).

Meindl and Ehrlich (1987) also found a strong inverse correlational relationship between organizational performance and leadership perception. Their experimental studies of M.B.A. students showed that, when participants were given information that emphasizes leadership factors such as key attributions to particular organization outcomes, the participants were more likely to give better evaluation on organizational performance. Higher organizational performance was described as more profitable and less risky. When non-leadership factors were emphasized, the study showed participants gave poorer evaluation of the same organizational outcomes. Non-leadership factors used included the quality of the organization's scientists, the changing patterns of consumer needs and market demands, and government regulatory changes (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987).

Shamir (1992) also found support for Meindl's romance of leadership notion. His study attempted to replicate Meindl and colleagues' (1985) Study 4 with extensions to measure the perception of charismatic leadership. Participants in the study were a group of 549 social science and humanities students of a Israeli university. These students were randomly given 1 of 24 versions of short descriptions of an organizational situation.

Organizational performance outcomes were manipulated in the descriptions. The students were then asked to indicate their agreement with the first statement of the 21-item Meindl's Romance of Leadership Scale "When it comes right down to it, the quality of leadership is the single most important influence on the functioning of an organization" (Meindl, 1990, p. 1). Shamir's study found high romance of leadership (range 1-7, $M = 5.43$, $SD = 1.01$) among the sampled respondents.

Emrich (1999) looked into the impact of current organizational performance on the perception or expectation of future leadership, e.g., evaluation of potential leaders. Her study found that contextual information, such as organizational performance, can color the perception of not only incumbent leaders, but also potential leaders. In her study, different groups of participants were assigned the responsibility for selecting potential leaders for troubled organizations and for stable organizations. The participants who were responsible for selecting leaders for troubled organizations perceived the job candidates more favorable as leaders, compared to participants who were responsible for stable organizations evaluating the same job candidates. Similarly, other studies found people experiencing organizational or societal crises tend to require incoming leaders to be more charismatic than incumbent leaders, although these incoming leaders lacked the experience for the jobs (Bligh et al., 2004; Bligh et al., 2005; Pillai, 1996).

A strong indication of the romance of leadership tendency also appeared in the 2009 National Study of Confidence in Leadership report, released by Harvard's Center for Public Leadership. As discussed in the previous chapter, each year the Center releases a report of a nation-wide survey on the attitude of Americans toward leadership. In the 2009 report (Rosenthal et al., 2009), it was stated that although the overall

confidence in leadership had improved significantly comparing to 2008, reversing a four consecutive years decline, it was still below the average level measured in 2005. Many of the respondents attributed societal problems to the lack of effective leadership. For example, 69% agreed that “we have a leadership crisis in the country today,” 59% did not agree that “overall, our country’s leaders are effective and do a good job,” and 67% agreed that “unless we get better leaders, the United States will decline as a nation” (Rosenthal et al., 2009, p. 3).

These numbers indicated that a large percentage of the American public accepts an implicit causal theory that links leadership effectiveness to organizational/societal performance. Leadership ineffectiveness, according to the study mentioned above, was a major attribution to perceived chronic societal problem. Most interestingly, when the same study asked “In general, would you say that the problems we face today can be resolved through effective leadership?” (p. 3) 87% of the respondents agreed, suggesting that despite their disappointment with current leadership, an overwhelming majority still believes that effective leadership is central to getting the nation back in the right direction (Rosenthal et al., 2009).

Romance of Leadership and Charismatic/Transformational Leadership

As mentioned previously, romance of leadership has a complementary relationship with charismatic/transformational leadership. Klein and House (1995) stated that the emergence of charismatic leadership requires three important ingredients: (a) a leader with charismatic qualities, i.e., “the spark”; (b) followers who are susceptible to charismatic leadership, i.e., “flammable materials”; and (c) the environment conducive to charismatic leadership, i.e., “oxygen.” Charismatic leadership cannot happen without

enough susceptibility among the followers, i.e., their attractions to the charisma of the leader and then their readiness to accept his or her leadership (Goethals, 2005; Klein & House, 1995; Madsen & Snow, 1983; Weber, Gerth, & Mills, 1946). Romance of leadership could be regarded as the followers' overall susceptibility to charismatic and transformational leadership.

With all other factors being equal, researchers postulate that romanticized followers are more susceptible to charismatic leadership. As the result, they are more likely to perceive successful leaders as charismatic and engage in charismatic relationship. Meindl (1990) described charismatic and transformational leaderships as “hyper-romanticism” (p. 182). His 1988 study, as reported in an article entitled *On leadership: An alternative to the conventional wisdom* (Meindl, 1990), found “substantive” (p. 182) correlations between romance of leadership and perception of charismatic leadership.

In the 1988 study, business students were asked to imagine working for Ronald Reagan and Lee Iacocca and then evaluate the leadership qualities of these leaders individually using Bass's Multifaceted Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). After their evaluations, raters were asked to engage in a series of activities, including answering a questionnaire regarding their general belief about leadership that used Meindl's Romance of Leadership Scale (form RLS-A). Meindl found strong positive correlations between the Romance of Leadership scores and both the MLQ's overall transformational scores and the MLQ's charisma component scores. This finding led Meindl (1990) to make the following conclusion:

These results suggest a connection between the romanticization of leadership in the implicit theory of the organizations, and the tendency to “see” more

transformational qualities in public figures...charisma...exist, in part, in the minds of observers and followers, closely linked to their implicit notions about the importance of leadership in the functioning of organized systems. (p. 184)

Shamir's (1992) study described in the previous section also showed a positive correlation between romance of leadership and the perception of charismatic leadership. In his study, each participant was provided with a vignette of an organization situation to read, selected randomly from 24 different versions available. The participant was then asked to rate whether or not the leader described in the vignette was a charismatic leader, using a 7-point scale ranging from "none" to "absolute." The study found a partial positive correlation between romance of leadership and the perception of charismatic leadership.

According to the study's findings, a positive and significant correlation between romance of leadership and perceived charismatic leadership was found only when organizational performance was perceived as high. When organizational performance was perceived as low, no correlation was found. Shamir suggested that one possibility for the lack of correlation for the later was due to his usage of only one item for measuring romance of leadership. A full utilization of Meindl's Romance of Leadership Scale for future research was recommended (Shamir, 1992).

A study by Awamleh and Gardner (1999) found strong support for a relationship between organizational performance and the perception of leadership charisma and effectiveness. In this study, participants were given organizational performance information, watched videotaped presentations from leaders, and then asked to provide an evaluation of leadership using Bass's MLQ-5X/Short Form (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The study used a modification of an earlier version of Meindl and Erlich's (1988) Romance of

Leadership Scale (7-item RLS-D) for measurement in addition to asking participants to directly rate the effectiveness of observed leaders.

The 304 undergraduate business students who participated in Awamleh and Gardner's (1999) study consistently rated leaders, whose organizations were reported as performed well, as more charismatic and effective than leaders whose organizations performed poorly. Furthermore, those who were labeled as "leaders" received higher blame for mistakes that lead to negative organizational outcomes than those labeled "managers." The study concluded that the romance of leadership notion was supported.

However, in this same study, no correlation between the version of Romance of Leadership Scale used and the subscales of Bass' Multifaceted Leadership Questionnaire was found. Awamleh and Gardner (1999) raised concern about the construct validity of the Romance of Leadership Scale as factor analysis yielded multiple distinguishing, but "uninterpretable," factors.

Schyns et al. (2007) conducted two cross-national studies (Study 1 and 2) and a meta-analysis of 11 existing studies on the relationship between charismatic/transformational leadership and romance of leadership (Study 3). In Study 1 they used four student samples from different universities within East and West Germany. The study used the German-translated version of the 17-item core subscale of the RLS (Romance of Leadership Scale; Schyns, Meindl et al., 2007) and the MLQ (B. Bass & Avolio, 1995). The German translation can be found in (Jörg Felfe & Schyns, 2006). The researchers found positive correlations in a subset of the samples in Study 1. For Study 2, the researchers used employee samples from multiple Dutch, German, and US

organizations. A U.S. and German-translation of the RLS and MLQ scales were used. Study 2 found no correlation for German, Dutch or U.S. employees.

Their meta-analysis (Study 3) of published studies, including Study 1 and Study 2, yielded limited success (Schyns, Felfe et al., 2007). Study 3 found only a small-to-medium positive correlation between romance of leadership and transformational leadership, leading to a conclusion that the relationship between romance of leadership and charismatic/transformational leadership remains only partially supported.

From the literatures reviewed above, the relationship between romance of leadership and charismatic/transformational leadership is partially supported. The findings reported range from very strong correlation (Meindl, 1990; Shamir, 1992), to partial correlation (Schyns, Felfe et al., 2007; Shamir, 1992), and to no correlation (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999). These inconsistent findings suggest that more studies in this area are needed.

The Dark Side of Romance of Leadership

Research on destructive leadership also suggests that romance of leadership is an important antecedent factor in the emergence of toxic leaders. People's tendency to over-attribute credit to leadership, according to Hinrichs (2007), will be more likely to embrace leaders, including toxic ones. Hinrichs labeled this propensity to embrace toxic leaders "committing a crime of obedience" (p. 69). Lipman-Blumen (2005) attributed followers' crime of obedience to a set of deep personal psychological needs and fears, which include the need for assurance of authority figures, the need for security and certainty, the need for achievement and to feel special or chosen, the need for

membership, the fear of isolation, and finally the fear of feeling powerless to challenge an authoritative figure.

According to Lipman-Blumen (2005), followers don't just tolerate toxic leadership. They actively participate in the creation of such leadership. They do this starting with self-rationalizations, a process of repeatedly convincing themselves with a set of control myths, justifying their acceptance of, or inactions toward, the toxic leader. As these control myths solidify, they are used to control the thought and behaviors of other members within the group. Control myths act as a self-policing vehicle, preventing those responding from revolting against oppressive situations. Without having to worry about being challenged, toxic leaders are then free to exert their influence on the collective. Lipman-Blumen (2007) wrote in a more recent article:

Taken together, our very human psychological needs and existential anxiety expose our Achilles' heel to toxic leaders. Meindl's (1995) basic insight about the "romance of leadership" is a powerful key for unlocking the mystery surrounding this fatal attraction. It serves as a serious warning for followers to look more deeply into their own suppressed fears and longings. (p. 14)

Padilla and colleagues (2007) describes destructive leadership as a leadership process that results in the destruction of organizations and societies. It is comprised of three elements: a charismatic narcissistic leader; susceptible followers who have unmet needs, low self-esteem, strong external locus-of-control, low maturity, ambition, sharing same values and beliefs; and a conducive environment which is unstable, under crisis, in which there is a lack of institutional checks and balances. Weak followers, as characterized above, have been found to have a high tendency to romanticize leadership in cult studies (Freemesser & Kaplan, 1976).

The combination of followers' strong tendency to idolize leadership, and the presence of bad leaders, can result in destructive consequences as demonstrated in Milgram's (1963, 1974) obedience experiment. In his experiment, participants were asked to institute electrical shocks to "learners," who were members of the experimenting team, to supposedly help them improve learning. When a learner failed to recall the word-pairs that were given to that learner, the participants were asked by "authorities," also members of the experimenting team, to apply a dose of electrical shock to the learners.

The voltage was increased in subsequent application of electrical shocks. The learners, in return, pretended to suffer real electrical shocks and reacted accordingly, such as begging the participants to stop the electrical shock treatment. Milgram found, to his surprise, that although many participants believed that they were actually administering increased dosage of shock treatments to learners, 65% of the participants chose to obey the instructions of "authorities" and go through with the perceived inhumane treatment of learners, committing the crime of obedience, while only 35% of the participants refused to obey authorities' directives. Milgram wrote in an article about the lessons from this experiment (Milgram, 1973):

This is, perhaps, the most fundamental lesson of our study: ordinary people, simply doing their jobs, and without any particular hostility on their part, can become agents in a terrible destructive process. Moreover, even when the destructive effects of their work become patently clear, and they are asked to carry out actions incompatible with fundamental standards of morality, relatively few people have the resources needed to resist authority. (p. 62)

Hinrichs (2007) suggested that followers who are high on romance of leadership, low on self-esteem and self-efficacy are more likely to avoid situations that require ethical decision making and are more likely to surrender their moral responsibility under

the request of an authority. These followers are more likely to take a position that “it’s not my problem; after all, I’m just a follower” (p. 71). Milgram’s obedience experiment is a quick reminder of the danger of over-reliance on authorities. Romance of leadership, as a human tendency to glorify the importance of leadership, can be detrimental to organizations and societies when subjected to the seduction of destructive leadership.

Antecedents of Romance of Leadership

A recent review of romance of leadership by Bligh and Schyns (2007) found surprisingly few studies available on antecedents to this phenomenon. Two published articles, one by Meindl (1990) and the other by Felfe (2005), were cited in the review. Bligh and Schyns concluded that a lot more research into antecedents of romance of leadership will be needed, including looking at industrial, occupational, cultural, and gender factors (Bligh & Schyns, 2007).

This study focused on exploring the antecedents of romance of leadership. There were three personal factors of interest to this study. They were personality traits, maturity, and cultural background. These factors collectively addressed the issue of durability and the universality of romance of leadership. If a relationship between personality traits and romance of leadership exists, it would suggest a biological-basis for romance of leadership. If romance of leadership remains strong across different levels of maturity, then the tendency may be immune from life experience. Also, if cultural background has little influence on romance of leadership tendency, then romance of leadership may be a universal phenomenon. The rest of this chapter focused on the roles of these three factors in more details.

Trait Theory of Personality in Leadership

This section provided background on personality theory and the Big-Five Trait theory specifically. It investigated the relationship between personality theory and leadership research focusing on romance of leadership.

Personality traits and leadership research. Personality has a long history in leadership research. Early leadership scholars ascribed to the view that leaders make leadership and that the quality of leadership is a product of innate stable personal characteristics that were shared only among leaders. Such leadership qualities do not exist in non-leaders. Great leaders are then distinguishable from non-leaders by the presence of these heretical leadership traits. Throughout the latter half of the 20th century, extensive scientific studies were done on great social, political, and military leaders in an attempt to uncover those core leadership traits that make them great leaders (Zaccaro, 2007).

Despite voluminous research on leader's personality, earlier researchers found very limited consistency among leadership traits discovered across different studies (Bird, 1940; Jenkins, 1947; Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948). As a result, by the late 1980s, many leadership researchers had abandoned traits theories to pursue studies in behavioral and situational theories (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Zaccaro, 2007). Some researchers attributed this defection to the lack of a standardized personality taxonomy to inconsistent results found in previous leadership personality studies (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Zaccaro, 2007). Some blamed the misinterpretation of the research data (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986). Others argued that traditional trait research failed to recognize that leadership traits are important

preconditions for leadership, but they do not guarantee great leadership (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).

Although there was less research interest in trait leadership during the 1980s, significant quantitative and qualitative findings kept this area of research going (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). For instance, Lord and colleagues (1986) reanalyzed earlier findings reported by Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) and found several misinterpretations of data. They criticized Mann's (1959) study as (a) failed to include prior data from leadership effectiveness studies, (b) ignored consistency in trends uncovered between traits like intelligence and leadership emergence, and (c) actually used a smaller number of independent samples than was reported. Their reanalysis found significant and stronger correlations between intelligence, masculinity-femininity, and dominance and leadership perceptions than previously reported (Lord et al., 1986).

Kirkpatrick and Locke's (1991) study identified six common leadership traits – drive, leadership motivation, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, knowledge of the business - that differentiate leaders from non-leaders. The researchers, however, emphasized that these traits signal leadership potential rather than an affirmation of leadership. That is, individuals in possession of these traits are more likely to take leadership-related actions such as formulating a vision, role modeling, and the setting of goals. Their leadership actions will more likely be successful. Individuals with leadership potential cannot become leaders without taking leadership actions (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).

In a longitudinal 4-year study of 401 cadets enrolled in an undergraduate military academy through their graduation, Atwater and colleagues (Atwater, Dionne, Avolio,

Cambreco, & Lau, 1999) found physical fitness, prior leadership experience, cognitive ability and self-esteem, measured during freshmen year, to be relevant predictors of leadership emergence and effectiveness when measured during the senior year at the military academy.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) have carried out their qualitative leadership study over multiple years. Year after year, the researchers asked thousands of participants to identify the leadership qualities (personal traits or characters) that they admired the most from a leader, someone who they are willing to follow. Content analysis of over 225 different traits, reported from more than 70,000 participants, identified the top four leadership characteristics as *honest, forward-looking, competent, and inspiring*. Reflecting on the results of their longitudinal study, Kouzes and Posner articulated their First Law of Leadership: “If you don’t believe in the messenger, you won’t believe the message” (p. 33).

Kenny and Zaccaro (1983) looked at the stability of leadership emergence across situations. Their study reanalyzed data from previous studies using a rotational research design technique that monitored the consistency of leadership emergence in groups as membership composition and task were varied. The study found that the same people tend to emerge across different leadership situations, suggesting the existence of unique leadership qualities independent of the situation. Although the study did not point to particular traits or behaviors, it suggested that previous claims that no leadership trait exist could be overly pessimistic (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983).

Big-Five trait taxonomy. Leadership trait research was resurrected in the 1990’s with the emergence of the Big-Five Trait taxonomy for measuring individual personality

differences (Zaccaro, 2007). The Big-Five Trait taxonomy classifies individual personality differences along five major personality dimensions, known as trait factors: Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness (John et al., 2008). Northouse (2007) summarizes these Big-Five trait factors in his book *Leadership*:

Extraversion [is] the tendency to be sociable, assertive, and to have positive energy. *Agreeableness* [is] the tendency to be accepting, conforming, trusting, and nurturing. *Conscientiousness* [is] the tendency to be thorough, organized, controlled, dependable, and decisive. *Neuroticism* [is] the tendency to be depressed, anxious, insecure, vulnerable, and hostile. *Openness* [is] the tendency to be informed, creative, insightful, and curious. (p. 21)

A more formal description of these Big-Five trait factors can be found in the *Handbook of Personality: Research and Applications* (John, Robins, & Pervin, 2008).

The Big-Five trait factors has been used successfully as an integrative framework for the analysis of personality in personality psychology (John, Naumann, & Pervin, 2008) and leadership research (Judge et al., 2002). In reviewing articles on personality measurements, John, Naumann, and Pervin (2008) confirmed the rising popularity of the Big-Five taxonomy in personality studies. They found more than 2000 new published studies that utilized the Big-Five Traits when they used keyword searches of the PsycINFO database within 9 years after the previous publication of their article in 1999, significantly more than the utilization of any other measurements of personality (John et al., 2008).

Goldberg (1990) investigated how well these Big-Five personality factors match up to the thousands of descriptive terms traditionally used to describe personality traits. In a series of factor analysis studies using terms describing personality traits in the English language, he found strong correlations between these terms and the Big-Five personality trait factors. Analysis of 1431 trait-descriptive dictionary adjectives (Study

1), 479 commonly used trait adjectives (Study 2), and then 100 synonym clusters based on 399 common trait terms (Study 3), produced the same Big-Five taxonomy structure, although different factor analysis procedures were deployed (Goldberg, 1990).

Research on the Big-Five taxonomy across different cultures and languages also found that the taxonomy is structurally stable. Factor analysis on data collected from American, German, Portuguese, Hebrew, Chinese, Korean, and Japanese samples, McCrae and Costa (McCrae & Costa, 1997) confirmed the universality of the Big-Five trait dimensions. While caution that additional studies will be needed for confirmation, John, Naumann, and Pervin (2008) agreed that the Big-Five taxonomy has the most potential for defining a universal trait structure.

McCrae's Five-Factor Theory of personality. Advances in trait personality research have allowed for the development of a more comprehensive theory on personality. McCrae and Costa (1999) proposed a personality system with a coherent structure of interrelationships between personality traits, environmental culture, and observable characteristics. The theory claimed that the combination of personality trait factors reflected a person's basic psychological tendency that is not easily changeable by cultural factors. More importantly, McCrae's theory claimed these stable and biologically-based psychological tendencies can be reliability measured by the Big-Five trait measurements, such as the NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R; McCrae & Costa, 1999) or the Big-Five Inventory (BFI; John et al., 1991).

Figure 2 presents the Five-Factor Theory personality system as proposed by McCrae and Costa (1999). The separation between basic biological-based tendencies, denoted as Basic Tendencies in the model, and their culture-enhanced characteristic

expressions of Characteristics Adaptation, is the distinguishing feature of the Five-Factor Theory.

Big-Five trait factors as predictors of leadership. The availability of the Big-Five taxonomy provides a common framework for leadership researchers to study personality. For instance, in a meta-analysis of 78 previous studies on the relationship between personality and leadership, Judge and colleagues (2002) confirmed that Big-Five trait factors can be used as dispositional predictors of leadership. Their study found Extraversion to have the strongest correlation to leadership ($r = .31$). Extraversion, thus, was the most important predicting trait of leadership.

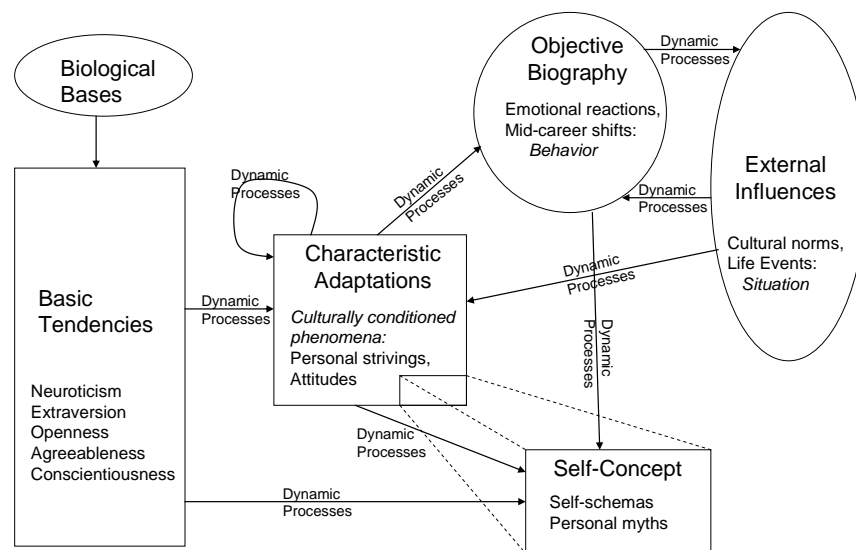


Figure 2. A representation of the five-factor theory personality system. Adapted from McCrae and Costa (1999, p. 142)

In the same study (Judge et al., 2002), extraversion was also found to be a strong predictor of leadership emergence. Conscientiousness was the second strongest ($r = .28$), followed by neuroticism and openness to experience ($r = .24$), and agreeableness ($r = .08$). A strong multiple correlation between the Big-Five traits and both leadership

emergence ($R = .53$) and leadership effectiveness ($R = .39$) supports the proposition that personality traits can be used as predictors of leadership. In his book *Personality and the Fate of Organization*, Hogan (2007) suggested a relationship between personality and leadership, citing evidence from the overall body of research on leadership personality and specifically the work of Judge and colleagues (2002):

The data is quite clear that personality and leadership are closely connected – who you are determines how you lead – and the standard dimensions of normal personality [such as Big-Five trait factors] are robust predictors of leadership effectiveness. (p. 51)

Big-Five trait factors and romance of leadership. There are a limited number of studies evaluating the relationship between personality trait factors and romance of leadership. To compensate for this limitation, this review section included additional studies focusing on the relationship between personality and the perception of charismatic/transformational leadership. An assumption was made that there is a strong positive correlation between followers' romance of leadership and their perception of charismatic/transformational leadership is correct (Meindl, 1990). Any significant correlation between personality and charismatic/transformational leadership suggests a potentially strong correlation between personality and romance of leadership.

This study also reviewed several findings on the relationship between personality and obedience to authority. This type of study has its root in the obedience experiments of social psychologist Stanley Milgram. Subsequent to Milgram's famous obedience experiments, several studies conducted have been performed in search for personality traits that attribute to the tendency to be obedience to authority (Altemeyer, 1981; Blass, 1991; Burley & McGuinness, 1977; Elms, 1972; Hass, 1966; Miller, 1975).

Meindl (1990) found positive correlations between a follower's locus of control, age, self-esteem and romance of leadership, utilizing his Romance of Leadership Scale (RLS-A) as an instrument. His studies, however, did not find any correlation between romance of leadership and a follower's gender, education, tenure, size of work unit, authoritarianism, or social desirability.

Felfe (2005) found occupational self-efficacy, self-esteem, extraversion, conscientiousness, and dominance positively correlated to romance of leadership. Neurotic was found to be negatively correlated to romance of leadership. He, however, did not find any correlation between a follower's motives, need for structure, tolerance of uncertainty, or need for leadership and romance of leadership.

Felfe and Schyns (2006) investigated the relationship between a follower's personality, occupational self-efficacy, and perception and acceptance of transformational leadership. They utilized the short version of NEO-Personality Inventory and the MLQ5X-Short form (Bass & Avolio, 1995) as instruments. Their study found only extraversion to be positively correlated to transformational leadership perception and acceptance of leadership.

Felfe and Schyns (2009) found self-esteem to be positively related and neuroticism to be negatively related to followers' perceptions of transformational leadership. That is, higher self-esteem individuals were more likely to perceive their leaders as transformational. One can postulate that similar relationships could be found between romance of leadership and self-esteem and neuroticism. That is, romance of leadership could be positively related to self-esteem and negatively related to neuroticism.

Several researchers, beside Milgram, found that there is a positive and significant correlation between personality and obedience of authority. Interviewing two group of participants in Milgram's obedience experiments, one group resisted the demands from authorities to administer more electrical shocks to pretended learners and the other group obeyed these demands to the end of the experiments, Elms (1972) discovered that those who obeyed the authorities were more likely to have a higher authoritarian personality. Elms confirmed his discovery of a positive correlation between authority and obedience by analyzing these people's scoring on the Authoritarian F Scale instrument. Miller (1975) and Altemeyer (1981), on separate studies of authority and obedience to authorities, corroborated Elms' findings.

In addition to authoritarian personality, Burley and McGuinness (1977) found that participants who resisted authority's command to administer higher voltages of electric shock tended to have a higher score on social intelligence. Hass (1966) found that those who followed instructions that were perceived as causing harm to others tended to have higher scores on hostility. Blass (1991) reported on several previous studies, including his own, which stated that there was a positive correlation between external locus of control and obedience.

Findings from studies described above suggest that there might be similar relationships between personality trait factors extraversion and openness to experience and the romance of leadership: Those who scored high on authority and hostility would score high on extraversion and high in romance of leadership; those who scored high in external locus of control would score low on extraversion and high on romance of

leadership; and those who scored high on social intelligence would score high on openness to experience and low on romance of leadership.

Contradicting the findings from Meindl (1990) and from Felfe and Schyns (2006), Hetland, Sandal, and Johnson (2008) found no significant relationship between any of followers' Big-Five personality traits, operationalized by the NEO-FFI (Costa & McCrae, 1985), and the perception of transformational leadership, operationalized by MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Specifically, their study found only moderate links between followers' neuroticism and their agreeableness to the ratings of transformational leadership. Hetland and colleagues' (2008) findings could be reinterpreted in terms of romance of leadership as there is not a significant relationship between followers' personality, as defined by Big-Five trait factors, and romance of leadership.

Strong versus weak personality and romance of leadership. Researchers suggest that people with strong and weak personalities romanticize leadership equally, although for different reasons. Howell and Shamir (2005) theorized that there are two distinct reasons for which followers are attracted to charismatic leaders, depending on their self-concept. Weak followers, those with low self-concept manifested as low self-esteem and strong external locus-of-control, are attracted to leaders because they are personally identified with the leader, instead of the leader's messages. These weak followers are dependent on, and vulnerable to the leader and the charismatic relationship provides them with a clearer sense of self and greater self-confidence (Howell & Shamir, 2005). Howell and Shamir defined the charismatic relationship between the leader and the weak followers as a personalized charismatic relationship. The follower's personal

identification with the leader, not the message, is the basis for a personalized charismatic relationship.

Strong followers, on the other hand, are those with a high self-concept who are attracted to leaders because of shared purposes, according to Howell and Shamir (2005). The charismatic relationship with the leader provides them with the means for expressing their leadership potential. The charismatic relationship between the leader and the strong followers is defined as a socialized charismatic relationship. Social identification with collective purposes is the basis for a socialized charismatic relationship.

The relationship between a follower's personality and romance of leadership forms a V-shape curve, as illustrated in Figure 3.

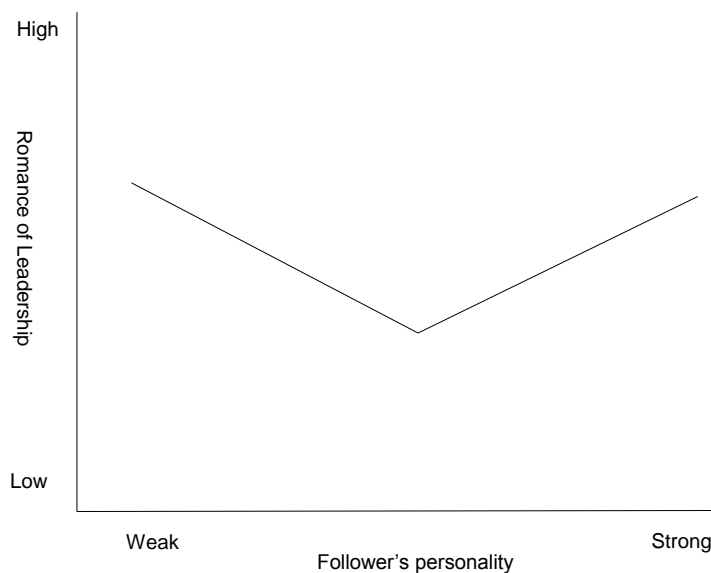


Figure 3. The relationship between romance of leadership and personality

Research into toxic leadership also suggests a similar relationship between weak and strong followers and romance of leadership. Followers with a strong idolized view of leaders and leadership and weak leadership ability (Hinrichs, 2007), high unmet needs,

low self-esteem, external locus of control, low self-efficacy, low maturity, un-socialized values (Padilla et al., 2007) were more likely to be susceptible to toxic leadership.

Padilla and colleagues (2007) noted that some strong personal characteristics are also found in idolized followers, including ambition and sharing the same toxic leader-like values and beliefs with their leaders.

Meindl (1990) confirmed higher romance of leadership scores among individuals with higher internal locus of control, i.e., strong followers. However, his study did not find any evidence supporting the proposition that weak followers, i.e., individuals with strong external locus of control, also have higher romance of leadership scores.

Similar to Meindl's (1990) findings, Felfe (2005) confirmed that individuals with high self-esteem, extraversion, conscientiousness, and internal locus of control have higher romance of leadership scores. His study did not support the proposition that weak followers, with low self-esteem and high external locus of control, would also have a higher tendency to romanticize leadership.

Freemesser and Kaplan (1976) found that their study of the personality of followers in cults supported the proposition that weaker followers also have a high idolized view of leadership. Two groups of participants were used in their study; one group belongs to a charismatic religious movement, the Coffee House Ministry, and the other to several traditional Protestant, Methodist, and Episcopal churches. The study found that those who were attracted to a charismatic religious movement, i.e., those who held a higher perception of charismatic leadership, on average, had lower self-esteem (i.e., high self-derogation scores) compared to the others when joining more traditional churches. In the context of romance of leadership, Freemesser and Kaplan's finding

suggested that weak followers might also have a higher romance of leadership tendency similar to strong followers.

Schyns and Sanders (2007) confirmed that both strong and weak followers were positively related to the perception of charismatic leadership in a series of studies. In Study 1, the researchers found extraversion to be positively related to transformational leadership (2007). In Study 2, Schyns and Sanders (2007) found a positive relationship between conscientiousness and the perception of transformational leadership. Their study (Study 3), found neuroticism, agreeableness, honesty/humility, and conscientiousness positively related to a charismatic leadership perception. Regarding the different findings among the three studies, Schyns and Sanders (2007) suggested that organizational context and national culture could be the moderating variables.

The findings summarized above suggest a positive correlation between strong and weak follower personality and romance of leadership. Meindl (1990), Felfe (2005), and Schyns and Sanders' (2007) studies found support for a positive correlation between strong followers and romance of leadership. Freemesser and Kaplan's (Freemesser & Kaplan, 1976) cult study found evidence suggesting that weak followers also possess high romance of leadership. Except for Shyns and Sanders' (Study 3) finding, the other studies demonstrated a correlation between weak followers and romance of leadership.

Maturity and Romance of Leadership

Maturity reflects acquired knowledge developed through experiences that affect an individual's interpretation and judgment of events. According to Bass and Stogdill (1990), maturity affects "task achieve, ability and willingness to take responsibility, task-relevant education and experience, activity level, dependence, the variety of interests,

perspective, position, and awareness” (p. 349). Maturity can play an important role in any leadership study. Leadership perspectives, such as situational and path-goal leadership perspectives, emphasize the understanding of followers’ maturity level, as expressed in their job confidence and competency, as a contingency of leadership effectiveness (Northouse, 2007). Meindl suggested a strong linkage between maturity and romance of leadership as he defined leadership, from the romance of leadership perspective, as “an experience undergone by followers” (Meindl, 1993, p. 97).

Research in adult development found that human mental complexity grows in phases with age (Kegan & Lahey, 2010). Unlike the traditional view that human mental complexity stabilizes during the twenties, researchers today believe that the human brain possesses phenomenal capacities to keep adapting throughout life. Kegan and Lahey (2010) characterized human mental complexity growth as follows (Figure 4):

1. Human mental complexity continues to increase throughout adulthood, until at least old age.
2. Within any age, there is considerable variation in mental complexity between different individuals.
3. There are multiple stages of mental complexity, reflecting increased maturity in the way an individual understands the world.
4. Mental complexity grows from one stage to the next in spurts, or transition periods. Once a new stage is attained, mental complexity remains relatively constant for a period of time.
5. Over time, the plateau period, i.e., the period when mental complexity stays constant, gets longer.

6. The number of people who move from one level of mental complexity to the next gets smaller and smaller over time.

Studies that focus on the impact of maturity, in terms of age and experience, on romance of leadership are limited. Of the studies reviewed, the findings were mixed. Researchers found evidence suggesting positive and negative correlations between followers' maturity and romance of leadership.

Meindl (1990) reported a significant positive correlation between maturity, operationalized by age, and romance of leadership. The findings led him to conclude that "leadership concepts are particular prominent in the thought process associated with implicit organizational theories among older individuals" (Meindl, 1990, p. 168). However, the same study did not find any relationship between job tenure and prior experience, i.e., possible alternative variables for measuring maturity and the romance of leadership among the sampled employees.

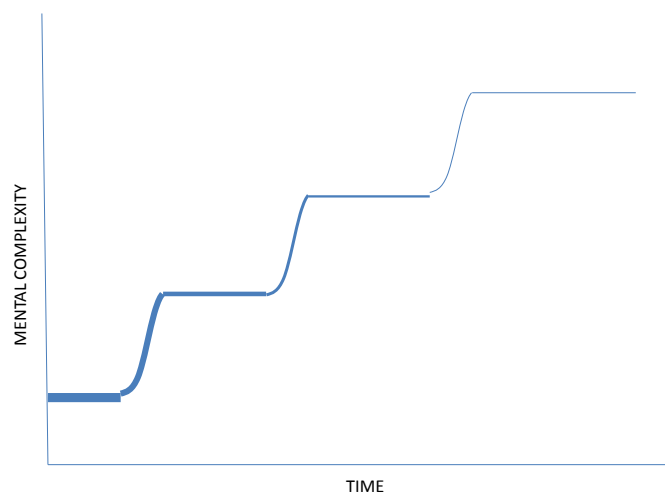


Figure 4. Pattern of human mental complexity growth over time. Adoption of Figure 26-3 in (Kegan & Lahey, 2010, p. 773).

Felfe's study (2005) reported no relationship between age and romance of leadership. The study utilized a scaled down version of Meindl's 32-item Romance of Leadership Scale. A sample of 184 undergraduates from three different European universities participated in this study.

As mentioned in Chapter One, the 2009 National Study of Confidence in Leadership (Rosenthal et al., 2009) that reported on Americans' attitudes toward their leaders showed that the majority of the population believed that the Country was heading in the wrong direction and that there was a crisis of leadership. However, when asked, an overwhelming majority (87%) believed optimistically that the problems the Country was facing today could be solved through effective leadership. The survey was conducted on a sample of 1040 adult United States citizens age 18 or older. The findings suggested that the tendency to romanticize leadership remained high among adult Americans, although the report itself did not attempt to compare the romance of leadership level across different age groups.

Schilling's (2007) study on managers' perception of leadership found partial support for a relationship between maturity and romance of leadership. The qualitative study explored the perceptions of 42 middle and upper managers of a telecommunication company toward leadership. In this study, the interviewed managers were considered to be experienced leaders and followers. Content analysis did not reveal any relationship between age and romanticized perception of leadership. However, the study did find a negative correlation between years of leadership experience and a romanticized perception of leadership. That is, while these managers did have a more optimistic view of leadership, their view of the consequences of leadership in an organization decreased.

Schilling's study suggested that the romantic aspect of leadership decreased as employees become more mature in organizations (Schilling, 2007).

Research in personality development found that maturity affects personality in the context of the Big-Five trait factors. McCrae and colleagues' (2000) study found that neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience decreases while agreeableness and conscientiousness increases for ages 18 to 30. Beyond the age of 30 the same trends continue, but at a smaller rate of change. This finding indicated potential changes in the follower's tendency to romanticize leadership through age and that the degree of romance of leadership level measured across different age groups could vary.

Meindl's (1990), Felfe (2005), and Schilling's (2007) findings suggested that additional studies are needed in the relationship between maturity and romance of leadership. Their utilization of different variables to operationalize maturity made it difficult to have accurate comparisons. McCrae and colleagues' (2000) study, on the other hand, implied that maturity could moderate the relationship between the Big-Five trait factors and romance of leadership.

Findings that romance of leadership increases with maturity seemed to contradict a popular belief that maturity, representing an increase in the awareness and understanding of complexity, should accompany a decrease in romance of leadership. As articulated by Bligh and Schyns (2007), and Weick (2007):

The tendency to attribute outcomes to leadership may diminish over an individual's career tenure and as he or she reaches higher hierarchical levels within the organization or gains accumulated experience with resource, role, and political constraints that may temper or inhibit their belief in the personal efficacy of leaders. (Bligh and Schyns, 2007, p. 349)

To romance leadership is to form a bias that exaggerates the relative importance of leadership to the functioning of a group or system. What is interesting here is

the possibility that as system awareness increases, romancing decreases. To be system-aware means to appreciate the density of interdependence, the abundance of heedful interrelating. (Weick, 2007, p. 284)

Based on the findings above, a follower's maturity level could have a direct effect or moderating effect on romance of leadership.

Culture and Romance of Leadership

Studies of the impact of national culture on implicit theories of both leadership and management have been of great interest within global management research. For instance, studies by Andre Laurent (1983) on implicit theories of management across different Western cultures found that national culture can have a significant effect on how individuals conceptualize the roles of management in organization. Comparing the mean scores of respondents from 9 different Western countries on a management questionnaire showed significant differences at the national level. In one survey, when asked "in order to have efficient work relationships, it is often necessary to bypass the hierarchical line," 75% of Italian respondents disagreed, comparing to 22% of Swedish and 37% of Danish. Similar proportionality was replicated in additional survey. Laurent concluded that "the national origin of European managers significantly affects their views of what proper management should be" (p. 77).

In his study, to understand the homogenizing effect of a shared organizational culture on individuals' implicit management theories, Laurent administered the same questionnaires to managers of two large multinational corporations. However, not a significant evident of a homogenizing effect across national cultures were found in either attempts. Instead, to Laurent's surprise, respondents working within both multinational corporations showed significantly wider differences in their conceptions of management

across cultural groups, compared to those working for companies within their own native countries. Laurent's surprised finding contradicted the often popular opinion that organizational culture plays an important role in moderating or erasing the influence of national culture (Adler, 2002).

Geert Hofstede's (1997, 2001) monumental work on national cultural dimensions has led to a better understand of the cultural dimensions that affect people attitudes and behaviors. According to Hofstede (1997), cultural differences could be organized along five distinct cultural dimensions: Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Long-term Orientation. Measurements along each dimension reflect the variance in the value systems of followers shared across different national cultures.

Table 1 summarizes the differences in both index and rank values of the four national cultures that are of interest in this study. These values are separated along the five dimensions mentioned above. The last two rows of the table captures the highest and lowest index values measured for each dimensions.

The index scores and ranks captured in Table 1 can be read as follow, using the United States as an example: Along the Individualism dimension, the United States as a national culture scored 91 index points, which gives it the number 1 rank among the 50 national and three regional cultures measured and ranked. However, the United States scored 29 index points on Long-term Orientation, which put it in the 17th place, behind India and ahead of the Great Brittan.

Hofstede's (1997) findings affected this research in several ways. First, his results confirmed that national cultural differences among employees directly affect

individuals' attitudes and behaviors. Second, these results confirmed that national culture has a more significant impact when compared to other factors such as occupation, age, gender, and race (Hofstede, 2000). Finally, they lend support to the use of multinational organizations for cross-cultural studies where national culture differences is a point of focus (Hofstede, 1997).

Cross-cultural studies related to romance of leadership are limited. Except for Schyns and colleagues (2007) meta-data analysis (Study 3) of previous romance of leadership studies that found the region of origin to be a moderator of the relationship between romance of leadership and transformational/charismatic leadership, there is no other known study that directly compares romance of leadership across different cultures. A cross-cultural evaluation of romance of leadership can help address the issue of universality with this concept.

Schyns and colleagues (2007) found region of origin to be a moderator of the relationship between charismatic/transformational leadership and romance of leadership. In their meta-analysis of 11 previous studies, the researchers found that the analyzed results are significantly different depending on whether outliers are included or excluded from the analysis. Following Hedges and Olkin's (1985) procedure for doing meta-analysis, these researchers (Schyns et al., 2007) found support for region of origin being a significant moderator when sample outliers are excluded from the study.

The 2009 National Study of Confidence in Leadership (Rosenthal et al., 2009) report suggested that romance of leadership is a national-level phenomenon. Leadership, in the mind of many in the American society, plays a prominent role in driving societal outcomes.

Table 1

National Culture Index/Rank Values for the United States, Great Britain, Israel, and India

	Power Distance Index/Rank	Individualism Index/Rank	Masculinity Index/Rank	Uncertainty Avoidance Index/Rank	Long-term Orientation Index/Rank
United States	40/38	91/1	62/15	46/43	29/17
Great Britain	35/42-44	89/3	66/9-10	35/47-48	25/18
Israel	13/52	54/19	47/29	81/19	NA
India	77/10-11	48/21	56/20-21	40/45	61/7
Highest Index/Rank Values	104/1	91/1	95/1	112/1	118/1
Lowest Index/Rank Values	11/53	6/53	5/53	8/53	0/23

Note. Adapted from *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind* by G. H. Hofstede, 1997. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill

Borrowing from cross-cultural research findings on charismatic/transformational leadership perception, there is reason to assume that romance of leadership is universal. For instance, Bass' (1997) review of previous cross-cultural studies on transformational leadership found universal endorsement. Most relevant to this study is his observation that "[people's] ideals and implicit theories of leadership tend to be transformational rather than transactional" (p. 137). When people were asked to describe an ideal leader based on their personal experience with real leaders, they invariantly described the traits and behaviors of transformational leadership. The result of his study suggested that, in general, there is a universal desire for transformational leadership. Romance of leadership, which focuses on people's general tendency to idealize leadership, could also be a universal phenomenon.

The most comprehensive study on charismatic/transformational leadership perceptions across cultures to date is the GLOBE study (House & Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program, 2004). In this study, House and hundreds of his colleagues conducted an extensive cross-cultural survey and interview study of approximately 17,300 managers from 951 organizations in 3 different industries and 62 societies. The 62 societal cultures studied were grouped into 10 cultural clusters, namely Eastern Europe, Latin America, Latin Europe, Confusion Asia, Nordic Europe, Anglo, Sub-Sahara Africa, Southern Asia, Germanic Europe, and Middle East. According to the GLOBE study, societal cultures were grouped together into societal clusters based on an evaluation of their (a) geographic proximity, (b) mass migrations and ethnic social capital, and (c) religious and linguistic commonality (Gupta & Hanges, 2004).

The GLOBE study (House & Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program, 2004) focused on nine different dimensions developed for the project – performance orientation, future orientation, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, individualism/collectivism, power distance, humane orientation, uncertainty avoidance - and six global leader behaviors – charismatic/value-based, team oriented, participative, humane oriented, autonomous, self-protective. The study found a universal endorsement of leadership across all societal cultures, although different cultures did favor different leadership styles. For the charismatic/valued-based leadership style in particular, the GLOBE study found a universal endorsement (see Figure 5) with Anglo, Latin America, and Southern Asia clusters scored most strongly in absolute scores (6.05, 5.99, and 5.97, respectively). The endorsed charismatic leadership

characteristics included visionary, inspirational, self-sacrifice, integrity, decisive, and performance oriented. The finding from the GLOBE study on charismatic leadership suggested that romance of leadership could also be a universal phenomenon.

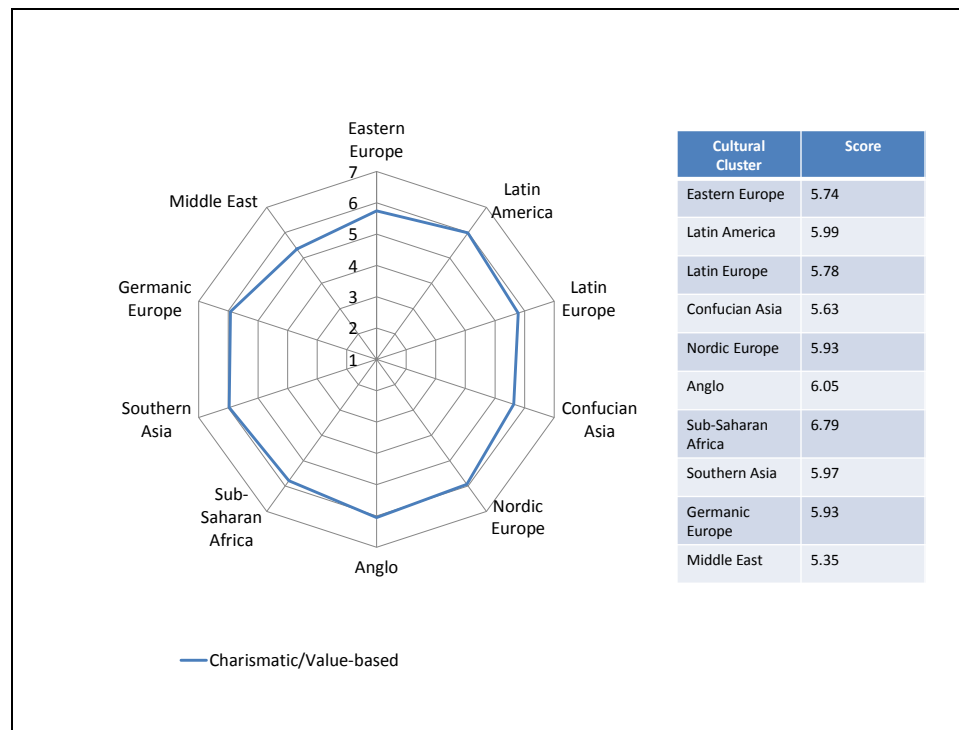


Figure 5. Visual representation of people's perception of charismatic leadership organized by society clusters. Adapted from data reported in Table 21.5 from the GLOBE study (House & Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program, 2004, p. 680)

Findings from the GLOBE (House & Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program, 2004) study further confirmed that organizational culture can be used as a substitute for societal culture in cultural studies:

In terms of the linkage between societal and organizational culture, we show a strong relationship between the two – organizations mirror societies from which they originate. Most important, the analysis demonstrating this fact eliminated potential common source bias. Although we showed the interactive effects of society and industry on organizational culture, organizational cultures seem to be more of a reflection of their societal context rather than their industrial context. (p. 726)

Hartog and Dickson (2004) warned about the potential impact of the interpretation of the term *leadership* in cross cultural studies:

Leader and leadership have a positive connotation in Anglo-Saxon countries, conjuring up heroic images of outstanding individuals...However, this does not hold for all direct translations of the term. The direct translation of leader to German is Führer. Obviously, the historically laden connotation of this term is rather negative. (p. 250)

Hartog and Dickson's warning could be relevant to any study that utilizes Meindl's Romance of Leadership Scale outside of Anglo-Saxon societies such as the U.S. and the U.K. Unlike romance of leadership, self-reporting transformational leadership questionnaires, such as Bass' Multifactor Leadership Questionnaires (MLQ) form 5X-SHORT (Northouse, 2007), ask respondents to rate their leadership qualities based on leadership attributes, such as "I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group," and behaviors, such as "I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions," rather than using the *leadership* term.

Meindl's Romance of Leadership instrument, on the other hand, directly asks questions about *leader* and *leadership*, such as "When it comes right down to it, the quality of leadership is the single most important influence on the functioning of an organization" and "Leaders should not be held totally responsible for what happens to a firm's performance" (Meindl, 1998a, p. 300). Misinterpretation of these terms, due to direct language translation, may result in at best a weak or no correlation between romance of leadership and transformational leadership scores when applied to those societies not of the Anglo-Saxon culture. As a result, romance of leadership scores, as measured by the Meindl's Romance of Leadership instrument, might not show a universal tendency.

Groupthink and Romance of Leadership

At the surface level, romance of leadership seems to be related to groupthink, a popular group decision making theory originally formulated by Irving Janis using case study analysis of several key foreign policy decisions made by the United States Administration during the 1960's (Janis, 1972, 1982). It is important to understand how these two theories are similar and difference.

Romance of leadership, like groupthink, is a group phenomenon that is situational by nature. Under specific circumstances, such as when experiencing high stress from external threats, evidence of groupthink and romance of leadership in groups tend to become more prominent (Janis, 1972, 1982; Meindl et al., 1985). Both groupthink and romance of leadership can be influenced by a group socialization process. As a result, it is reasonable to assume that both phenomena are more likely to occur in groups that are homogeneous in their social backgrounds and ideology. Like groupthink, people who romanticize leadership can develop a faulty sense of group invulnerability and righteousness.

However, there are clear distinctions between groupthink and romance of leadership under a closer review. Groupthink phenomenon has a very strict definition, as articulated in Janis' book titled *Groupthink: Psychological Studies of Policy Decisions and Fiascos* (Janis, 1982). According to Janis, "groupthink syndrome" can only occur in moderately or highly cohesive working groups, consisting of a few individuals working closely together on a single common policy issue and seeking group-concurrence. In addition to being small and cohesive, groups that suffer from groupthink syndrome are typically (a) led by a particularly strong-will leader who lacks impartiality, (b)

organizationally insulated from access to objective expert opinions on the important matters that are being decided, and (c) are engaged in ad hoc decision making process that does not follow any pre-established methodology for decision making (Janis, 1982).

When discussing what qualifies as groupthink, Janis argued that a small membership and group concurrence-seeking are the necessary pre-conditions, but are not sufficient for prediction of the presence of groupthink in any working group (Janis, 1982). Group insulation away from access to expert opinions, non-impartial strong-will leadership, and a lack of methodological procedure for decision making are three support structural conditions needed for groupthink (Janis, 1982). Groupthink, Janis argued, can be predicted in working groups only when one or more of these supportive structural conditions can be found in addition to small group size and high group cohesion.

According to some researchers, groupthink syndrome is decidedly a negative group phenomenon; an undesirable outcome of a flawed decision process in small and highly cohesive groups that need to be identified and eliminated (Fuller & Aldag, 1998). When groupthink dominates a group decision making process, group members often engage in self-censorship and suppression of deviant thoughts among its members to protect group concurrence. As the result, the products of groupthink are generally low quality decisions with high potential negative consequences (Janis, 1982). Finally, groupthink is a strictly situational and temporal phenomenon. That is, the same group that suffers from groupthink under one circumstance might or might not suffer from groupthink under a different circumstance (Janis, 1982).

While Janis' groupthink syndrome has become accepted wisdom in the popular press, the phenomenon has received surprisingly very limited empirical support from

research done in the last 30 years, as summarized in (Fuller & Aldag, 1998; Park, 2000; Turner & Pratkanis, 1998). In some instances, reexamination of the original analyses presented by Janis, using newly declassified information and memoirs of those actually involved in the cases analyzed, suggested a mischaracterization of the decision process due to prior lack of information (Kramer, 1998). Turner and Pratkanis (1998), in their review of the state of groupthink research, cautioned readers about the danger of accepting groupthink as an established theory:

The unconditional acceptance of the groupthink phenomenon without due regard for the body of scientific evidence surrounding it leads to unthinking conformity to a theoretical standpoint that may be invalid for the majority of circumstances. This in turn leads to a spiral of ignorance and superstition that is not easily circumvented. How incongruous that the concept warning us of the dangers of overconformity becomes a victim of that conformity. (p. 112)

Romance of Leadership, as first articulated by James Meindl, described a pervasive human tendency shared within a large population (Meindl et al., 1985). Unlike groupthink, which is strictly a group outcome phenomenon, romance of leadership is both an individual and collective phenomenon. That is, this tendency can be found in assessment of individuals or a collection of individuals, not necessary only among small and highly cohesive groups.

To be more specific, romance of leadership phenomenon is not subject to the strict preconditions for groupthink syndrome as articulated by Janis (1982). These preconditions include: (a) a small cohesive group with a collective tendency to seek group concurrence, (b) the existence of a strong-will leader who drive the group, (c) the lack of access to subject matter experts, and (d) the reliance on an ad hoc decision making process. Romance of leadership, as articulated by Meindl, can exist as a universal human condition.

As an innate or deeply socialized human tendency, romance of leadership is viewed as something that needs to be recognized, accepted and accounted for, rather than eliminated out of the organizational and societal decision making process. Individuals with a high tendency to romanticize leadership will be more likely to attribute credit and lay blame on leadership across a variety of organizational and societal situations as a matter of instinctive reactions to observed outcomes, rather than a artifact of an explicit group decision making process (Meindl et al., 1985).

Romance of leadership is a value neutral phenomenon. One can talk about romance of leadership in the context of how much it can influence a group decision, either for the good or the bad. As discussed earlier in this chapter, romance of leadership is perceived by some researchers as a necessary precondition for the emergence of transformational and despotic leadership. Groupthink syndrome, on the other hand, refers to a defective group decision making process.

Groups that measure high on the Romance of Leadership Scale are more likely to incorrectly attribute organizational outcomes to leadership. Incorrect attributions can lead to a defective group decision making, resulting in defective group decisions. However, these defective decisions might not be attributable as products of the groupthink syndrome, as the pre-conditions for groupthink laid out by Janis for groupthink were not met (Janis, 1982). Vice versa, groups that suffer from groupthink syndrome do not necessarily register higher scores on the Romance of Leadership questionnaires than individuals not suffering from a groupthink syndrome.

Chapter Summary

Romance of leadership is a leadership-based research perspective that focuses on understanding the causes, nature, and consequences of the human tendency to romanticize leadership. This theory occupies a complementary position to those taken by popular leader-centered theories such as Charismatic and Transformational leadership theories. Instead focusing on the leadership characteristics and behaviors of leaders, the romance of leadership perspective focuses on the followers' susceptibility to leadership. The theory has its roots in social constructivism and leadership attribution theories.

Studies on antecedents to romance of leadership were limited and the reported results to date were mixed. On the relationship between followers' personalities and romance of leadership, there was evidential support for higher romance of leadership among strong followers, but none for weak followers as many have theorized. Positive correlation between maturity and romance of leadership was supported in one quantitative study. However, the opposite was found in another qualitative study which concluded that romanticism decreases with maturity. The universality of romance of leadership is implied from the findings of the GLOBE study; however, how romance of leadership varies across cultures has not yet been studied. Meta-analysis suggested that region of origin does have an effect on romance of leadership. Finally, there have been no studies that looked at the relationship between personality and romance of leadership in the context of maturity and cultural background.

Chapter 3: Methodology and Procedures

“Leadership attribution is a generalized and pervasive human tendency that could and should be measured and accounted for in leadership research” (Pfeffer, 1977).

Chapter Overview

This chapter provides a detailed description of how this study was conducted. It describes the (a) research approach and design, (b) pilot study, (c) population and sample, (d) consent procedures, (e) instrumentation and evaluation of test reliability, (f) data collection methods, and (g) analysis techniques that were employed.

Problem Statement

What relationship, if any, exists between personality, maturity, and cultural background and romance of leadership in a multinational organization?

Research Hypotheses

This study analyzed the relationship between three sets of independent variables, grouped into three independent factors, namely *personality traits*, maturity, and *cultural background*, and one dependent variable *romance of leadership*. Personality trait factors consist of five independent variables, namely *extraversion*, *agreeableness*, *conscientiousness*, *openness to experience*, and *neuroticism*. Maturity consists of four independent variables, namely *age*, *years of college education*, *years of working*, *years of managing*, and *seniority level*. Cultural background consists of two independent variables, namely *home region* and *culture identity* (Figure 6).

The main focus of this study was to understand the degree of correlation or difference among groups of participants regarding romance of leadership. The research

hypotheses and the specific hypotheses, along with the statistical tools used for data analysis, in this study are described below.

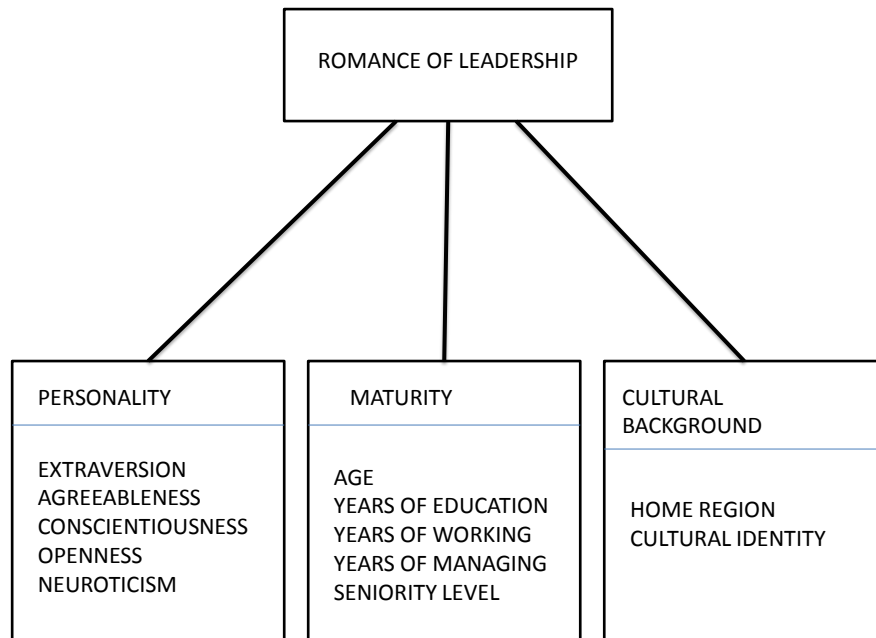


Figure 6. Independent and dependent variables

Research hypothesis 1: Is there a correlation between romance of leadership and the Big-Five personality trait factors? Research hypothesis 1 looks at the degree of correlation between each Big-Five personality trait factor (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism) and romance of leadership:

Hypothesis 1.1: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and extraversion.

Hypothesis 1.2: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and neuroticism.

Hypothesis 1.3: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and conscientiousness.

Hypothesis 1.4: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and agreeableness.

Hypothesis 1.5: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and openness to experience.

Data collected from the survey participants were used to analyze the correlation between romance of leadership and individual personality trait factors. Specifically, simple correlation analysis was used to confirm or disconfirm a linear relationship between romance of leadership and each personality trait factor. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient r values were used to measure the strength of these correlations.

A p -test was used to determine the level of significance of these relationships, with a level of significance of 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$). All tests of significance were two-tailed.

The coefficient-of-determination R^2 values were used to indicate the proportion of predictability of the dependent variable, romance of leadership, explained by these personality trait factors.

Research hypothesis 2: Is there a correlation between romance of leadership and maturity? Research hypothesis 2 looks at the degree of correlation between each maturity factor (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership:

Hypothesis 2.1: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and age.

Hypothesis 2.2: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and years of college education.

Hypothesis 2.3: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and years of working.

Hypothesis 2.4: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and years of managing.

Hypothesis 2.5: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and seniority level within the organization.

Data collected from the survey participants were used to analyze the correlation between romance of leadership and maturity. Specifically, non-parametric correlation analysis was used to confirm or disconfirm a linear relationship between romance of leadership and each maturity factor. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient ρ values were used to measure the strength of these correlations.

A p -test was used to determine the level of significance of these relationships, with a level of significance of 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$). All tests of significance were two-tailed.

The coefficient-of-determination R^2 values were used to indicate the proportion of predictability of the dependent variable, romance of leadership, explained by these personality trait factors.

Research hypothesis 3: What are the differences in cultural background with regard to romance of leadership? Research Hypothesis 3 looks at the difference in the romance of leadership among different subgroup of participants, separated by home region or culture identity:

Hypothesis 3.1: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants from different home regions, with respect to romance of leadership.

Hypothesis 3.2: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants, each sharing a common national culture with respect to romance of leadership.

Hypothesis 3.3: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants, each sharing a common national culture, from within the India home region with respect to romance of leadership.

Hypothesis 3.4: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants, each sharing a common national culture, from within the Israel home region with respect to romance of leadership.

Hypothesis 3.5: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants, each sharing a common national culture, from within the United Kingdom home region with respect to romance of leadership.

Hypothesis 3.6: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants, each sharing a common national culture, from within the United States home region with respect to romance of leadership.

Data collected from the survey participants were used to analyze the differences between the romance of leadership of among regional and cultural groups. Specifically, means, standard deviations, and 95% confidence intervals were computed for romance of leadership scores across these different groups.

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the difference between mean scores of romance of leadership among different regional or cultural groups. The *F*-test was used to measure the degree of the difference in mean scores among regional and cultural groups at a significance level of 0.05. ANOVA results were

used as the basis of rejecting or accepting the null hypothesis that asserts that the mean scores of romance of leadership, among regional groups or culture groups, are homogenous.

$$H_0: \mu_{\text{groupIN}} = \mu_{\text{groupIL}} = \mu_{\text{groupUK}} = \mu_{\text{groupUS}}.$$

Post-hoc analysis, using Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test, was used to further evaluate the differences between the mean values of romance of leadership of each pair of regional or cultural groups. The results were used as the basis of rejecting or accepting the null hypotheses of the form

$$H_0: \mu_{\text{group1}} = \mu_{\text{group2}}$$

where groups 1 and 2 represent two regional or cultural groups whose mean RLS scores were compared.

Research hypothesis 4: Is there a correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants sharing a common cultural background? Research Hypothesis 4 looks at the relationship between each Big-Five personality trait factor and romance of leadership among participants working in the same region or sharing the same culture identity.

Hypothesis 4.1: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from the India home region.

Hypothesis 4.2: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from the Israel home region.

Hypothesis 4.3: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from the United Kingdom home region.

Hypothesis 4.4: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from the United States home region.

Hypothesis 4.5: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants sharing the India culture identity.

Hypothesis 4.6: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants sharing the Israel culture identity.

Hypothesis 4.7: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants sharing the United Kingdom culture identity.

Hypothesis 4.8: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants sharing the United States culture identity.

Data collected from the survey participants were used to analyze the relationships between romance of leadership and personality trait factors of each group of participants sharing a common home region or national culture. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient r values were used to measure the strength of these relationships.

A p-test was used to determine the level of significance of these relationships, with a level of significance of 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$). All tests of significance were two-tailed.

The coefficient-of-determination R^2 values were used to indicate the proportion of predictability of the dependent variable, romance of leadership, explained by these personality trait factors.

Research hypothesis 5: Is there a correlation between maturity and romance of leadership among participants sharing a common cultural background? Research Hypothesis 5 looks at the relationship between maturity and the romance of leadership among survey participants working in the same region or sharing the same national culture.

Hypothesis 5.1: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants from the India home region.

Hypothesis 5.2: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants from the Israel home region.

Hypothesis 5.3: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants from the United Kingdom home region.

Hypothesis 5.4: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants from the United States home region.

Hypothesis 5.5: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants sharing the India culture identity.

Hypothesis 5.6: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants sharing Israel culture identity.

Hypothesis 5.7: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants sharing the United Kingdom culture identity.

Hypothesis 5.8: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants sharing the United States culture identity.

Data collected from survey participants were used to analyze the relationship between maturity and romance of leadership among those sharing a common home region or national culture. Specifically, for each group of participants, simple correlation analysis was used to confirm a linear relationship between romance of leadership and each individual maturity factor. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient ρ values were used to measure the strength of these relationships.

A p -test was used to determine the level of significance of these relationships, with a level of significance of 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$). All tests of significance were two-tailed. The coefficient-of-determination R^2 values were used to indicate the proportion of predictability of the dependent variable, romance of leadership, explained by these maturity variables.

Research hypothesis 6: Is there a correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors, maturity, culture background and romance of leadership?

Research Hypothesis 6 looks at the relationship between Big-Five personality traits, maturity factors (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership.

Hypothesis 6.1: There is/is not a significant correlation between Big-Five personality trait factors (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism), maturity factors (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level), and cultural background (home region, and culture identity) with regard to romance of leadership.

Data collected were used to analyze the relationship between the Big-Five personality traits, maturity and romance of leadership. Hierarchical linear regression analysis was used to determine the combination of personality trait, maturity, culture or region variables that best predict romance of leadership. Dummy coding technique was employed to incorporate culture identity and home region into the resulting regression models.

To analyze the overall fit of the resulting models, multiple coefficient-of-correlation R values were used to measure the strength of these relationships. Multiple coefficient-of-determination R^2 was used to measure the portion of the romance of leadership that can be accounted for by the predictor variables of the regression model.

To verify the quality of the regression models, the F-ratio statistics were computed to determine how much the predictor variables improved the prediction of the outcome comparing to the level of inaccuracy inherent in the model (Field, 2005). R^2

values and *Adjusted R*² were compared to evaluate the generalizability of the models. Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was evaluated to ensure no collinearity within the data, and casewise standardized residuals were analyzed done to evaluate the accuracy of the mean RLS scores computed from survey data comparing to statistically predicted RLS scores.

The final multiple regression models had the form:

$$\text{Romance of Leadership} = a (\text{personality}) + b (\text{maturity}) + c (\text{culture or region}) + d$$

Research Approach and Design

This is a quantitative research study, looking at the relationship between personality, maturity, cultural background, and romance of leadership. The study took a postpositivist position regarding the development of new knowledge, which states that the truth of knowledge is not absolute but exists within a specific context (Creswell, 2003). New knowledge developed from this study came from a survey of several hundred volunteered employees within a single multinational organization.

Knowledge gained in this study was acquired through the scientific method tradition, which involves the statement of theories, collecting of data that either support or refute these theories, and the refinement of the theories in light of these data (Creswell, 2003).

This study adopted a non-experimental strategy of inquiry to data collection, also known as Post-Facto strategy. That is, no attempt was made to change the behavior or conditions of the study. That data are collected and measured as is. The study utilizes cross-sectional survey instruments with predetermined questionnaires to obtain data for

analysis from a sample taken from a population of interest. Based on the sample data collected, generalized conjectures were made about the population (Creswell, 2003).

This study focused on the existence, and degree of significance, of relationships between two or more quantitative variables (Patten, 2007). An analysis of the data was designed to determine (a) the existence of a relationship between the variables (correlation analysis), and (b) the significance of this relationship, presuming that it indeed exists (Huck, 2000). The outcomes of a correlation analysis between variables thus could fall into one of the following five possible outcomes (Table 2):

Part of this study also focused on an analysis of the differences in measurements for a particular variable among different sample groups. The analysis of the data was designed to determine (a) the existence of a difference in the sample mean values of a variable among these groups, and (b) the significant of this difference, presuming that it indeed exists.

Table 2

Five Possible Outcomes of a Correlation Analysis

		SIGNIFICANT	
		YES	NO
CORRELATION	POSITIVE		
	NONE		
	NEGATIVE		

To evaluate the relationship between romance of leadership, personality, maturity and cultural background, employees from four participating regional offices of a high-tech multinational company were asked to complete two self-reporting instruments, one to measure their tendency to romanticize leadership and the other to measure their personality. Additional demographic information reflecting the maturity and cultural background was collected, including gender, age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, seniority level within the organization, home region, and culture identity. Once the data were collected, an analysis was done to determine whether or not there was a relationship between these variables and romance of leadership.

Sample

Research site. The research site chosen for this study was a multinational for-profit private company engaging in software development. Headquartered in the United Kingdom with multiple regional offices operating within more than 10 countries, the company has been in business since 1989. Today, the company has over 5000 employees and annual revenue of over 1 billion dollars (USD). The company has been doing relatively well the last couple of years as the leader within its industry with a steady 10% annual revenue growth. The regional offices selected for this study all have experienced a steady increase in the number of employees in recent years. Annual employee survey responses have indicated a general satisfaction among the employees with the company and its executives' performance. The study investigator is presently a senior director in this organization, working out of the United States regional office. This company was

selected for the study both because of its multinational nature and its accessibility to the research participants.

Participants. The sample for this study was made up of employees of the participating multinational company. A convenience sample of the population (Patten, 2007) was used rather than a random sample. Only employees from engineering divisions whose senior manager (a functional vice president or regional general manager) approved the survey were invited. Individual participation was done on a voluntary basis. For each participating region, 150 to 200 employees received an invitation to participate in this study. The most senior level executives, including the CEO, his direct reports from corporate headquarters, the regional General Managers, and the vice presidents, were excluded from the survey.

The participating regions included India, Israel, the United Kingdom and the United States, which are among the larger regional offices of the participating corporation. Within each region, people from multiple offices were invited to participate. For instance, within the United States region, employees from both the East and West Coast offices were invited. Participants received an invitation via an email with a link to the survey questionnaires. The sampling design for this study was single-stage where the names of potential participants were identified up front using the employee roster for each participating region (Creswell, 2003).

Prospective Power Analysis

To ensure that there would be enough statistical power in the result findings, minimal sample sizes needed for this study were determined during the planning of the study. For the correlation analysis of personality and romance of leadership, Judge and

colleagues (2002), Meindl (1990) and Felfe (2005) stated that the magnitude of the significant correlations, as measured by Pearson's correlation coefficient r values between leadership and key personality trait factors such as extraversion and openness to experience, ranged between .15 and .30.

This study expected an effect size of .25 for the relationship between personality, maturity, and culture and romance of leadership. For an effect size $r = .25$, alpha significant criterion $\alpha = .05$, and desired power = .80, the minimum sample size required was 123 cases per group being analyzed, computed using G*Power, version 3.1.3 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, and Buchner, 2007). This means that a minimum total sample size of 492 cases was required to support analysis of variance between mean scores of region or culture groups.

For multiple regression analysis, assuming that the number of predictors interested is 5, the sample size needed to evaluate the overall fit and the contribution of individual predictor variables was 109, based on Field (2005).

Consent Procedures

Both Pepperdine's Internal Review Board (IRB) and the participating company gave their approvals for the study. All approvals were signed prior to the initiation of data collection phase.

Materials and Permissions

The following permission forms and materials are included in the following Appendices:

- Appendix B: 17-item Romance of Leadership Scale

- Appendix C: Permission for use of the 17-item Romance of Leadership core factor from SAGE
- Appendix D: Big-Five Inventory (BFI) Response Form and Instructions
- Appendix E: Human Participants Protection Education for Research Certificate
- Appendix F: Online Survey Questionnaires
- Appendix G: Request for Permission to Recruit Survey Participants from [REDACTED]
- Appendix H: Survey Introductory Email
- Appendix I: Invitation to Online Survey Email
- Appendix J: Online Survey Reminder Email
- Appendix K: Informed Consent for Participation in this Study
- Appendix L: Permission to Recruit Participants from [REDACTED]
- Appendix M-AG: Descriptive and inferential statistics generated using SPSS

Instrumentation

Two measurement instruments were used for this study, the 17-item subset of the Romance of Leadership Scale (Schyns et al., 2007) and the 44-item Big-Five Inventory (John et al., 1991). The Romance of Leadership Scale is designed to measure a person's tendency to romanticize leadership and the Big-Five Inventory is designed to measure a person's personality, based on Big-Five personality trait factors. The rationale in selecting these two instruments was based on the common methodological approach they shared. Both instruments, Romance of Leadership Scale and Big-Five Inventory, were designed for self-reporting surveys. Both instruments use a 7-point Likert scale for the responses, and have been utilized in prior cross-cultural studies.

The Romance of Leadership Scale (Appendix B) used in this study was a subset of the scale originally introduced by Meindl (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1988) and was later refined for a cross cultural study by Schyns, Meindl and Croon (Schyns et al., 2007). According to Schyns and colleagues (2007), the original RLS questionnaires could be split into three distinct subsets based on the following distinct factors: (a) the general belief that organization leaders have significant influence over organization outcomes, (b) the interchangeability of leaders, and (c) the significance of the influence of other factors on organization's performance.

For this study only the 17 statements describing a general belief that organization leaders have significant influence over organization outcomes were utilized. According to Schyns and colleagues (2007), these 17 leadership statements capture the original intention and spirit of the romance of leadership phenomenon.

The Big-Five Inventory (BFI) Scale was designed to measure a person's innate characteristics along five personality trait factors: extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, conscientious, and openness to experience. This scale, developed by Oliver John and colleagues (1991), consists of 44 questions. The survey is considerably shorter and easier to understand than the more comprehensive 240-item NEO-PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1985) mentioned in the previous chapter.

Unlike NEO-PI-R and older personality measurements that rely on a set of adjectives, Big-Five Inventory items have short phrases developed on core adjectives typically used in Big Five personality trait factor measurements. Multiple-method analysis in a cross-cultural context demonstrates that Big-Five Inventory to be equally

effective as the NEO-PI-R for the purpose of this study (Benet-Martínez & John, 1998; John, Naumann et al., 2008).

In addition to Romance of Leadership and Big-Five Inventory questionnaires, several demographic questionnaires were used to capture employees' maturity and cultural background. Employees were asked to provide information on gender, age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, seniority level, home region, and preferred culture identity. Table 3 summarizes the scale types and values of the independent and dependent variables used for this study.

To arrive at an individual score on the Romance of Leadership Scale, a mean score of the 17-item questionnaires was computed for each participant (Appendix B shows how each item of the questionnaires was scored). Appendix D explains how the score for each personality trait factor for each individual was computed. To determine a regional or company level mean score, an average score was computed from the collection of individual scores for the particular region/culture or for the entire company.

Instrument Reliability and Validity

Two principles for measuring the appropriateness of instruments to be used in this study are validity and reliability.

Instrument validity. Instrument validity speaks to the appropriateness of the use of a particular instrument in obtaining the desired measurement for evaluation and inference. The validity of any instrument is then situational, depending on the purpose, population, and contextual factors around where the measurement takes place (Patten, 2007).

Table 3

Descriptions of the Scales Used in This Study

Type	Variable	Scale	Value
Dependent variable	Romance of Leadership	Interval/raw scores	1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree)
Independent variable	Personality Trait Factors	Interval/raw scores	1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree)
	Age	Interval/raw scores	Number of years
	Years of College Education	Interval/raw scores	Number of years
	Years of Working	Interval/raw scores	Number of years
	Years of Managing	Interval/raw scores	Number of years
	Seniority Level	Ordinal (also treated as Interval/raw scores)	0 (Most Junior Level) to 7 (Most Senior Level)
	Home Region	Nominal	India (IN), Israel (IL), United Kingdom (UK), United States (US)
	Culture Identity	Nominal	India (IN), Israel (IL), United Kingdom (UK), United States (US), and Others
	Gender	Nominal	Male and Female

The original 32-item Romance of Leadership Scale, as developed by Meindl (J. Meindl & Ehrlich, 1988; Meindl, 1990), was recently refined by Schyns and colleagues (2007). Their structural study of the scale reveals three distinct factors. One factor,

named the “core factor” of the scale, consists of seventeen items and is concerned with measuring “the extent to which a leader is able to affect organizational outcomes” (Schyns et al., 2007, p. 34) . The second factor, consisting of ten items, is concerned with the interchangeability of leaders. The third factor, consisting of 5 items, focuses on the significant influence of other factors, in addition to leadership, on organizational outcomes.

Subsequent evaluation of four different cross-cultural samples in the same study by Schyns and colleagues (2007), using factor rotation on their hypothetical matrix, found that the core factor items are the most stable and most reflective of the spirit of Meindl’s Romance of Leadership theory. These researchers recommended additional cross-cultural validation of the scale for further confirmation. This study uses the 17-item core factor of Romance of Leadership Scale for measuring employees’ romance of leadership.

John, Naumann et al. (2008) conducted a comprehensive study of the validity of three widely used Big-Five instruments, McCrae’s NEO-PI-R, John’s BFI, and Saucier’s 40-item version of Goldberg’s Trait Descriptive Adjectives (TDA), based on data obtained from 829 undergraduates at the University of California, Berkeley. Their study found that mean scores across all five factors, on all three scales, converged substantively. The mean of the convergent validity correlation was .75 (John, Naumann et al., 2008). The researchers noted that BFI converged the strongest to TDA (mean $r = .80$) followed by NEO-PI-R (mean $r = .77$). The researchers concluded that all three Big-Five measurements showed “impressive convergent and discriminant validity” (John, Naumann et al., 2008).

Instrument reliability. Instrument reliability speaks to the consistency of measurement as it is used across different occasions of use (Patten, 2007). Reliable instruments yield consistent data on variables that the instrument is intended to measure.

As previously discussed, the 17-item core factor of the Romance of Leadership Scale was tested for reliability against four different cross-cultural samples in Schyns and colleagues (2007). Analysis showed that significant congruence for the core factor was found across all four samples. In another study of the relationship between romance of leadership and charismatic/transformational leadership, Schyns and colleagues (2007) found the 17-item core factor questionnaire highly reliable, as determined by a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of above .75, across all four student samples.

John, Naumann et al. (2008) found the BFI measurement highly reliable with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .83. Extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience all had internal alpha coefficients of above .80.

Instrument Permissions

Permission was obtained for use of the 17-item core factor of the Romance of Leadership Scale, documented in (Schyns et al., 2007). The Big-Five Inventory Scale (John et al., 1991; John, Naumann et al., 2008), copyrighted to Oliver P. John, is freely available for non-commercial research purposes, as described in (John, 2010).

Collection of Cultural Background Information

To study the effect of cultural background on employees' romanticism of leadership, two demographic variables home region and culture identity were utilized. Home region denoted the regional offices where the participants collect their paychecks and culture identity denoted the national culture participants identify with and believe is

most influential to their thought system. In a multi-cultural society, such as the United States and the United Kingdom, participants can identify themselves culturally with other nations, like India or Israel. Participants who did not identify with one of the four national cultures interested in this study were excluded from the analysis. Grouping participants based on shared national cultures could lead to different findings than grouping participants based on shared regional offices.

Data Collection and Recording

Online survey. The collection of data from the employees, for both phases, was done using an online survey tool, SurveyMonkey.com. According to Umbach (2004), researchers identified several unique advantages that online surveys offer over traditional mailed surveys, including lower distribution cost, shorter turnaround, less coding error, more flexible design, better privacy, and better economy of scope. An experimental study conducted by Kiernan, Kiernan, Oyler, and Gilles (2005) found that online quantitative surveys yielded a response rate comparable to traditional mail surveys, while online qualitative surveys yielded a better rate. Schaefer and Dillmans' (1998) study reported that the average response time for email-based surveys was 9.16 days, shorter than the average 14.39 days for paper surveys. For this study, the online survey was kept open for the period of 19 days, from December 2nd to December 21st, 2011.

Concerns regarding online survey. Online surveys do have unique disadvantages that need attention. Umbach (2004) summarized several common errors for online surveys: coverage error, sampling error, measurement error, and nonresponse error. Online surveys might not cover the target population if only a small, non-

representative, portion of the population can access the Web. Sampling error arises when not everyone in the population is given an equal chance to be included in the sample.

Measurement error is caused by mode effects. Two potential mode effects are (a) participants of online surveys could have more technical knowledge than participants of paper-based surveys and (b) online surveys might look different depending on the different browsers, triggering different stimuli that affect the measured responses. A nonresponse error occurs when those who did not respond are different from those who responded based on demographics or attitudes, such as older people, people with lower education or people who are from particular racial and ethnic minorities (Umbach, 2004).

Working with online surveys was not a problem with this study, as every employee in this high-tech company is expected to be able to use the Web. Since this study used convenient sampling rather than random sampling, some sampling error is inherent in the sampling process independent of the issue of using online survey. Regarding measuring error, care was taken to ensure that the look-and-feel of the survey was consistent across the Internet Explorer and Firefox browsers. These browsers are supported by the company. To address the issue of nonresponse error, a question was added to the questionnaires to track responses from those who decided not to take part in the survey.

Data collection plan. Data collection was administered in two phases, the instrument calibration and the survey phase. The instrument calibration phase, or the pilot phase, included sending the survey to a number of employees in each office for instrument and process tuning purposes. The data collected during this phase were

included in the survey phase. The survey phase covered sending out surveys to the entire sample and collecting their responses.

Initially, each regional Human Resources organization was asked to designate a small sample of five employees to participate in the pilot phase. Pilot phase participants were asked to complete the online survey within a period of 1 week from receiving the original invite email. In addition to responding to the survey questionnaires, these pilot participants were asked to comment on the clarity of the instructions and questions. Their feedbacks allowed further improvement of the final survey.

For the survey phase, 150 to 200 participants from each region were invited to participate in the survey. It was the objective of this study to collect at least one hundred completed responses from each participating regional office (i.e., a 50% response rate), resulting in a total of more than four hundred responses across the four participating regional offices.

To kick start the survey phase, an introductory email explaining the purpose of the study was sent a few days ahead of the survey email. According to Kaplowitz, Hadlock, and Levine (2004), comparable response rates between online and paper survey are achieved by sending an introductory email in advance of the survey email. Mehta and Sivadas (1995) recommend sending an introductory email to differentiate the survey email from unsolicited email surveys. According to these researchers, people are less likely to respond to survey emails without prior notification (Mehta & Sivadas, 1995). The regional managers were included in the introductory email sent out to survey participants to further emphasize that this was not an unsolicited survey email.

A survey email, containing embedded links to (a) the consent letters, (b) two measurement questionnaires, and (c) the demographic questionnaires, were sent to each participant. The participants were given three weeks to complete their surveys. The survey email included an explanation of the purpose of the survey, a deadline, and a statement indicating that the participant is part of a small group chosen for this study (Porter & Whitcomb, 2003).

Finally, the survey emails sent were not personalized to identify the individual participant by name. Meta-data analysis of survey email had reported mixed results on the relationship between sending personalized emails and survey response rates. Umbach (2004), however, recommended doing so as today's technology makes personalizing emails relatively easy. In this survey, the decision to send general-addressed emails rested with the Human Resources staff.

One follow-up reminder email was sent to the employees at the beginning of week two to encourage them to complete the survey. In addition, the participating managers were asked to encourage their employees to complete the survey. Several senior managers within the company sent followed up emails within three weeks to encourage more of their employees to participate. Using such reminders is in line with the best practices recommended in (Couper, Traugott, & Lamias, 2001; Umbach, 2004).

Hard copies of the purpose statement and the survey were available to be handed out as per specific request. With the permission and the cooperation of the Human Resources organizations operating out of each regional office, Human Resources personnel were available for distributing hard copy surveys and collecting responses

during the survey phase. However, not one hard copy of the survey was requested in this study.

Motivating survey participants. To ensure that an adequate number of employees would respond to the survey, the survey author incentivized the participation process by donating two Apple iPad 2 (64B, Wi-Fi) tablets as prizes in a sweepstake. Participants in the pilot and survey phases who answered the survey questionnaires were included in the sweepstake drawings. The Human Resources department was responsible for the drawings and the computers were delivered to the sweepstake winners through by regional Human Resources personnel after completion of the survey phase.

Data encoding plan. The data encoding of the two instruments used in this study is as follows: For the romance of leadership and Big-Five personality trait factors, scores from the electronics survey were downloaded as a SPSS spreadsheet of raw scores. These data were imported into SPSS version 20 software for analysis. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to explore the relationships between the variables.

Methodological Assumptions and Limitations

There are several assumptions and limitations to the design of this study:

1. Since the study's participants came from within a single multinational company, research findings might not be generalized beyond this specific company.
Samples of employees from different multinational companies, used in a similar study, might yield different results.
2. A randomized sample of participants was not possible. Instead, only employees who belong to divisions or groups whose managers have agreed to participate in the study were contacted.

3. The instruments used for data collection were self-reporting measures of the participant's personality and opinion of romance of leadership. The results could vary depending on the accuracy of the answers and how they are reflected in the perceptions of the participants.
4. The study utilized English language instruments in all participating regions, including United Kingdom, United States, India and Israel. Although the primary spoken language in the company is English across all sites, it is possible that some participants could misinterpret the wording of the questions provided.

Chapter Summary

This chapter described the research approach and design of this quantitative study. Topics discussed include hypotheses to be tested, sampling technique, online survey, consent procedures, instrumentation, instrument validity and reliability, the data collection method and the analysis techniques that were deployed in the study.

Survey data were collected from engineering employees from various software development departments within a multinational company where the researcher is presently employed. The participating departments came from four regional sites, namely India, Israel, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

Individual participation was done on a voluntary basis. Two self-reporting instruments for measuring romance of leadership and Big-Five personality trait factor scores were administered to the participating employees. In addition, demographic data on maturity and cultural background were collected. Once the data were collected, descriptive and inferential analysis techniques were used to analyze the relationships and interactions between romance of leadership, personality, maturity, and cultural

background. The results of the data analysis will be presented in Chapter 4, and the conclusion and implications will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 4: Results

Chapter Overview

This chapter presents the results of the survey and the data analysis conducted for this study. The process of data collection was documented in Chapter 3. Due to the large quantity of descriptive and inferential statistics generated by SPSS, these data were included in Appendix M through AG for reference. This chapter focuses on summarizing key demographic information and statistical findings based on the research hypotheses stated in Chapter 2. Throughout the chapter, references to tables in appendixes are included to enable access to the original SPSS generated statistics. When referencing an SPSS table in an appendix, the table number is prefixed with the appendix letter.

Descriptive Analysis of Sample

About the survey rollout. The data collection period for this study spanned between December 2nd and December 21st, 2011. The survey rollout followed the steps described in Chapter 3. During the data collection, incoming survey responses were tracked by the investigators. The survey website was turned off after the December 21st, 2011.

About the survey responses. Of the 758 participants invited, 420 of them completed all the questions on the survey, providing a total of 420 cases for analysis. Three additional participants missed one question in the survey. To complete these three cases, three values were generated for the three missing responses. Each generated value was computed based on averaging a set of responses to questions that are related to the question with the missing response. For instance, if the missing response was needed to compute the extraversion score of a participant, a new value was generated by computing

the mean value of the responses of all questions used to calculate the extraversion score. With the three missing responses filled in, the number of completed cases was 423. This study had a 56% response rate.

In analyzing responses on the demographic question “Which national culture you feel most identified with?,” there were 32 cases where the participants identified their culture as other than the four national cultures that are of interest of this study. These cases were also removed from the study to yield the sample count of 391 cases.

Normal distribution analysis of RLS at regional and cultural groups identified 3 outliers that caused the data to not be normally distributed. These outliers were removed from the sample, resulting in 388 cases available for analysis.

The analysis described in the rest of this chapter used this final sample ($N = 388$).

About the survey participants. Of the 388 participants, 306 (79%) were male and 82 (21%) were female (Table M41).

Participants from all four regions within the company took the survey. 98 (25%) of them came from the India region, 123 (32%) came from Israel region, 77 (20%) from the United Kingdom region, and 90 (23%) from the United States region (Table M42).

Participants in the survey came from all four national cultures of interested. 103 participants identified themselves with the Indian culture, 119 identified themselves with Israeli culture, 79 with the United Kingdom, and 87 with the United States (Table M42).

The age of the participants spanned a large range, from 21 to 66 years old. The mean age was 37 years old. The median and standard deviation were 36.9 and 9.14, respectively (Tables Q58 and R64).

The age range of those participated from India is different from the other three regions. The mean age of participants from India was about 29.3 ($SD = 4.04$), comparing to 38.1 from Israel ($SD = 9.15$), 39.7 from the United Kingdom ($SD = 8.26$), and 41.1 from the United States ($SD = 9.13$; Tables R65-R68).

The mean scores for years of working and years of managing are 13.26 ($SD = 9.26$) and 4.76 ($SD = 6.4$), respectively (Tables Q58-Q59). Across the four regions, the mean scores for years of working and years of managing varied significantly.

Participants from India had average mean scores of 6.4 ($SD = 3.69$) and 2 ($SD = 6.24$) years, respectively. Participants from Israel had 12.9 ($SD = 8.94$) and 4.5 ($SD = 6.24$).

Those from the United Kingdom had 17.4 ($SD = 8.26$) and 7.1 ($SD = 7.63$) years.

Finally, from the United States, 17.8 ($SD = 9.79$) and 6.1 ($SD = 7.35$) years (Tables R65-S68).

For years of college education, survey participants averaged around 4.8 years ($SD = 1.88$), i.e., between the college bachelor and master degree levels (Table Q60). For India, the average years of college education was 5.6 ($SD = 1.47$) years. For Israel, it was 4.3 ($SD = 1.76$). For the United Kingdom and the United States, they were 4.4 ($SD = 1.89$) and 5.0 ($SD = 2.13$), respectively (Tables R65-S68).

Survey participants came from all levels of seniority within the company. The number of participants in each level ranged from 14 to 95. With the larger numbers occupied the middle levels, i.e., level 2-4, of the hierarchy. Of 388 participants, 42 (11%) came from the lowest level (Level 0 and 1), 80 (21%) came from Level 2, 93 (24%) from Level 3, 95 (24%) from Level 4, 44 (11%) from Level 5, 20 (5%) from Level 6, and 14 (4%) from above Level 6 (Table M44).

To ensure that each level had a substantive number of participants for the statistical analysis, such as one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of mean RLS scores across seniority levels, the bottom three levels, i.e., level 0-2, and the top three levels, level 5-7, were merged to form a new four-level New Job Family Title (NJFT). To prevent any confusion, a JFT or NJFT postfix was added to the label “seniority level” to denote the use of 7-level or 5-level measurement for seniority level in the analysis (Table 4 and Table M45).

Table 4

Frequency Distribution Statistics based on Seniority Level

	Seniority Level (JFT)		Seniority Level (NJFT)
Above level 6 (top level)	14		78
Level 6	20		
Level 5	44		
Level 4	95		95
Level 3	93		93
Level 2	80		122
Level 1 or 0	42		

About culture identity and home region. Two approaches to grouping participants were deployed in this analysis. Participants were grouped based on locality, i.e., which home region they collect their paychecks from, or on cultural identity, i.e., which national culture they feel most identified with. Analysis found there were 36 participants, about 10%, who selected a culture identity that is different from the majority of participants from their home region. An example is a participant who came from the United States region, but felt most culturally identified with those from India. Suspecting

that the analysis of participants' responses grouped by region and by culture might yield different results; both groupings were used in this study.

Table 5 summarizes the frequency distribution of participants based on these two groupings.

Table 5

Frequency Distribution Statistics based on Culture Identity and Home Region

Grouping Criteria	IN	IL	UK	US	Total
By home region	98	123	77	90	388
By culture identity	103	119	79	87	388

About statistical power of the analysis. The sample size ($N = 388$) used in this study did not meet the projected required sample size of 492 estimated through prospective power analysis in Chapter 3. While this number was not a problem for analyses done at the company level, there is a higher risk of committing a Type 2 Error at the regional or cultural level due to smaller sample sizes within each regional or cultural group. This risk level, however, is comparatively well below the risk level of making Type 2 Error in the majority of published studies in scholarly journals across a wide spectrum of research areas today (Ellis, 2010). Chapter 5 will cover the issue of effect sizes and practical significance of the findings in this study.

About Romance of Leadership Scale (RLS) scores. The mean RLS scores for survey participants were computed by dividing the sum of the scores responding to the RLS statements on the survey by the number of statements. The score of statement number 12 was reversed before being included in the mean RLS score computation (Appendix B). Individual response to each RLS statement was measured on a 7-point

Likert-Scale with 1 denoted “Disagree Strongly” and 7 denoted “Agree Strongly.” Table 6 summarized some key statistics regarding the RLS scores. More detailed information about RLS statistics collected could be found in Tables N46 and P55.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of Romance of Leadership

	N	Mean	Median	SD	Range	95% Confident Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
RLS	388	5.19	5.25	.64	3.65-6.65	5.13	5.26
RLS (Female)	82	5.28	5.38	.65	3.76-6.65	5.13	5.42
RLS (Male)	306	5.17	5.24	.63	2.88-6.53	5.10	5.24

Evaluating the normal distribution of RLS scores, using Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test, showed that the resulting RLS scores were significantly not-normal, $D(388) = 0.064$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 (Table N52). The p value for RLS is identified in Table N52, by column “Sig.”, as generated by SPSS. However, according to Field (2005), finding of RLS scores significantly not-normal was not unusual due to the effect of having a large sample size. For a large sample size, i.e., greater than 200, a small deviation from normality could yield a significant finding. Field recommended utilizing visual validation of normality using a histogram instead. Validation of the frequency distribution of RLS scores using a histogram confirmed that the scores were approximately normal (Figure N26).

Analysis the z-scores of skewness and kurtosis values showed that the variances from normality are within acceptable limits for a large sample. Table 7 summarizes the

computed z-scores for skewness and kurtosis. The z-scores were computed using the following equations:

$$Z_{Skewness} = \frac{S - 0}{SE_{Skewness}} \quad Z_{Kurtosis} = \frac{K - 0}{SE_{Kurtosis}}$$

Both resulting z-scores were below 2.58, the threshold one would expect to get by chance alone, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 .

From the visual review of the histogram, and skewness and kurtosis results, the RLS scores in this study were assumed normally distributed.

Test for homogeneity of variance (Levene's test) confirmed that the variances between RLS scores among participants grouped by home region are equal, $F(3, 384) = 2.287$, p (two-tailed) > 0.05 based on mean (Table N53). The p values are identified in column "Sig." of Table N53, as generated by SPSS.

Table 7

Standardized Scores for Skewness and Kurtosis of Romance of Leadership

	Statistic	Std Error (SE)	z-scores
Skewness (S)	-0.267	0.124	-2.153
Kurtosis (K)	-0.552	0.247	-2.235

Frequency distribution of RLS scores showed a near unanimous belief in organizational leadership in this multinational company. To compare participants who agreed with the 17 leadership statements with those who disagreed, the investigator partitioned the mean RLS value range of 0 to 7 into several sub-ranges, with 0-3.49 denotes a general disagreement with RLS statements, 3.50-4.49 denotes a "neutral" or "no comment" position, i.e., neither agreed nor disagreed, and 4.50 to 7.00 denotes various level of agreements.

Out of 388 participants analyzed, 63 (16%) took a neutral position regarding the importance of senior leadership in the organization, 185 (48%) agreed a little, 137 (35%) agreed, and 3 (1%) strongly agreed. No participant explicitly disagreed with these 17 statements about leadership (Table O54).

Even when “neutral” responses are to be interpreted as implicit disagreements, a pessimistic view, a high percentage of the participants ($48\% + 35\% + 1\% = 84\%$) agreeing with the 17 leadership statements was still observed. The age of these participants spans from early 20s to late 60s (Figure 7), suggesting that leadership romanticism appeared across all working ages. Similarly, the age of the participants taking a neutral position also spreads out in this same range.

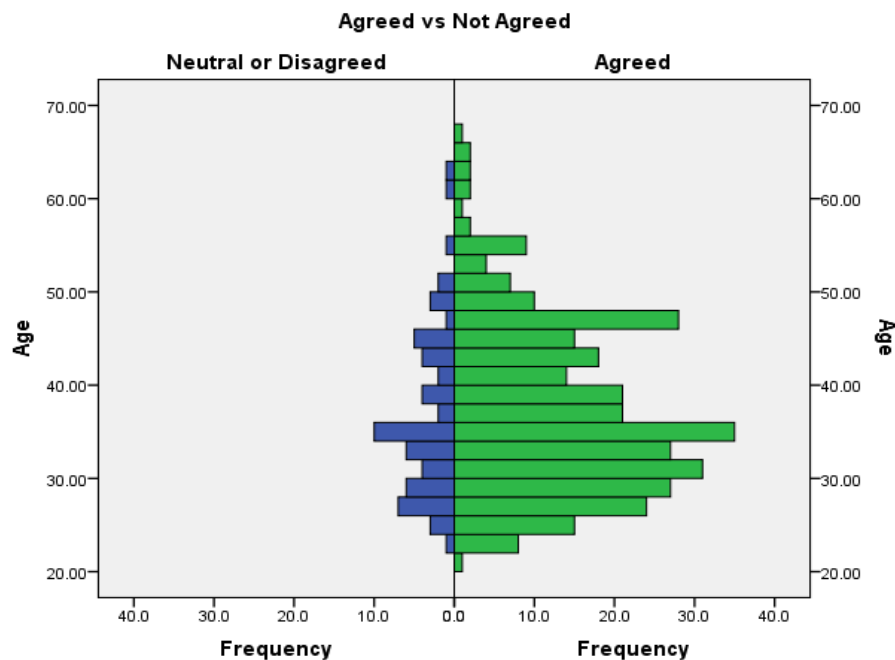


Figure 7. Frequency distribution of participants agreeing (or not agreeing) with the 17 leadership statements, grouped by age

Figure 8 plots the frequency of distribution of the participants agreeing with the 17 leadership statements across different levels of seniority within the organization.

Across all seniority levels within the organization, the majority of the participants exhibited the symptom of leadership romanticism.

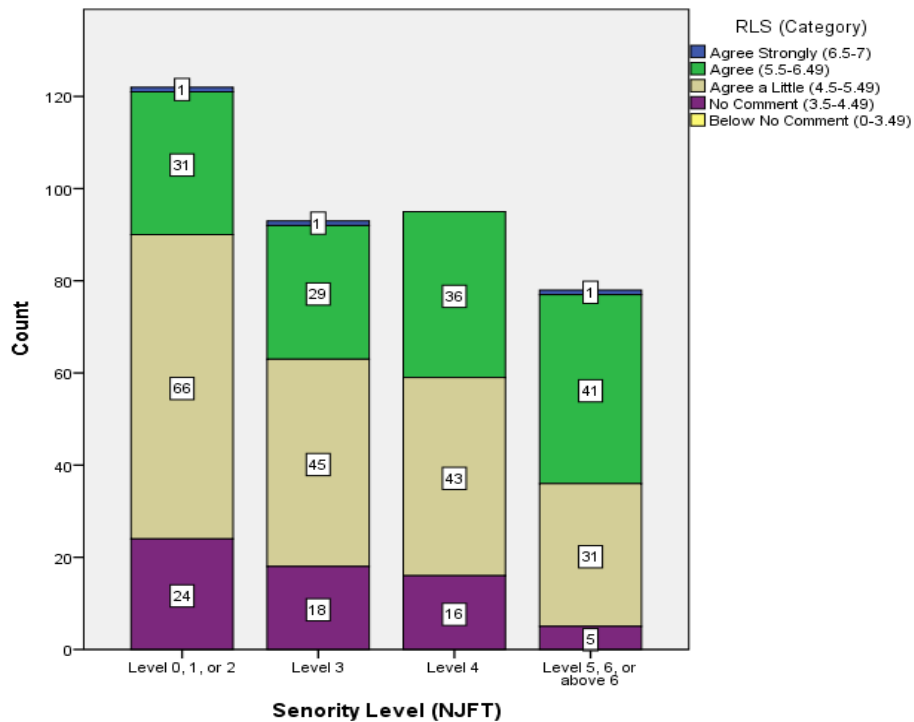


Figure 8. Frequency distribution of the average scores of participant responses to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level

Regarding the strength of the agreements with the 17 leadership statements, the data showed a degree of caution shared among the study's participants. The vast majority of those who agreed with these statements responded as either "Agreed" or "Agree a Little." Out of 388 participants, only 3 responded "Agree Strongly" (Figure 8). These responses collectively suggest that while the majority of the study participants endorsed the proposition that senior level leaders is the single most important determinant of organization outcomes, there is a degree of restraint in their endorsements.

This restraint also reflects a degree of deliberation in the participants' responses to the leadership statements. It is possible that this deliberation comes from the fact that survey participants were aware that this survey was sponsored by the company and, in

particular, by their own regional executives. By design, the survey introduction emails were sent out by the company human resources personnel. These emails made explicit references to the supporting executives. In addition, follow up endorsement emails were sent by the regional executives to encourage more participations. The repeated references to the company and the regional executives suggest that the survey should be taken seriously. Researchers have noted that leadership survey responses from working adults tend to be more deliberate comparing to those that come from the university students (Judge et al., 2002).

Figure 9 plots the percentage of participants agreeing with the leadership statements across different seniority levels within the organization. This percentage stays consistently high across all seniority levels, between 80% and 93%. Overall, the plot indicates that participants in more senior levels within the organization are more likely to exhibit a tendency to romanticize leadership. This pattern repeats at the regional and cultural levels. Figures 10 and 11 show that across all four participating regions (or cultures), the percentage of those agreeing with the romance of leadership statements tends to be greater among the more senior members of the organization.

Figures 10 and 11 also show how these agreements varied among regional and cultural groups. For India, over 90% of the participants across all levels agreed with the leadership statements. Starting from Level 4 and up, agreement with the 17 leadership statements among these participants was unanimous. The United Kingdom shows a drastically different pattern. A little over 40% of the most junior level participants culturally identified with people in the United Kingdom agreed with the leadership statements, i.e., nearly 60% of them stayed neutral. This percentage then jumped from

level to level to reach a little below 90% among the highest levels within the organization. The growth pattern of agreements among participants culturally identified with people from Israel and the United States is relatively similar, ranging from approximately 75% of the most junior level members agreed to 95% of the most senior level members.

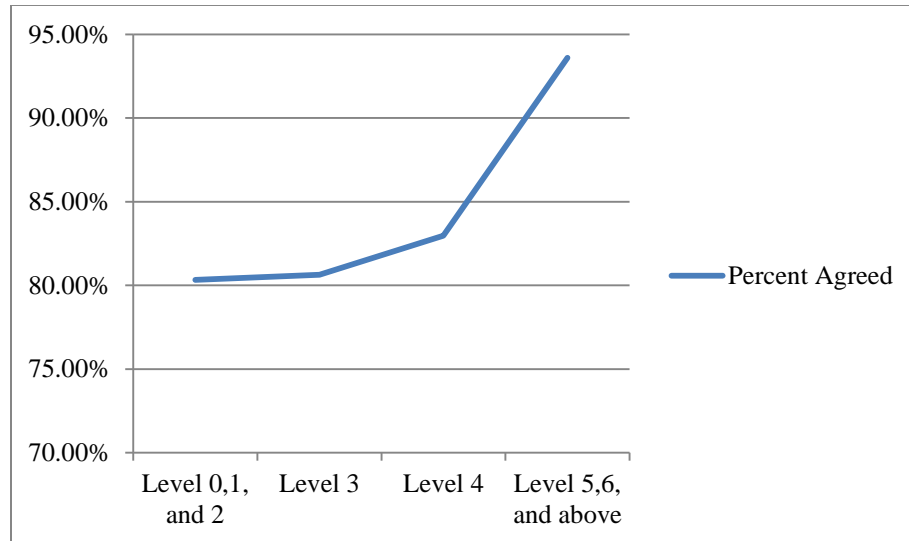


Figure 9. Percentage of participants agreeing with the 17 leadership statements by seniority levels

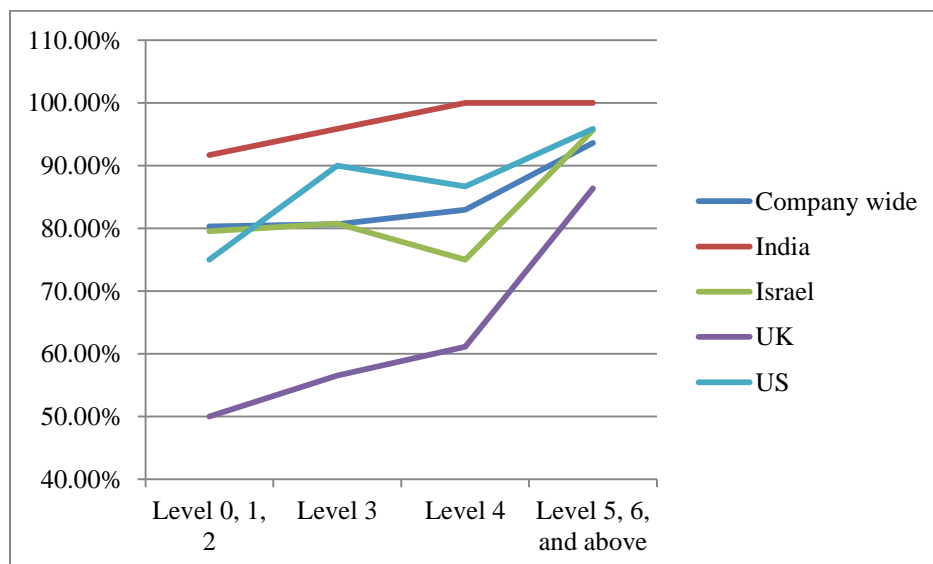


Figure 10. Percentage of participants agreed with the 17 leadership statements across different seniority levels (NJFT), at company and region levels

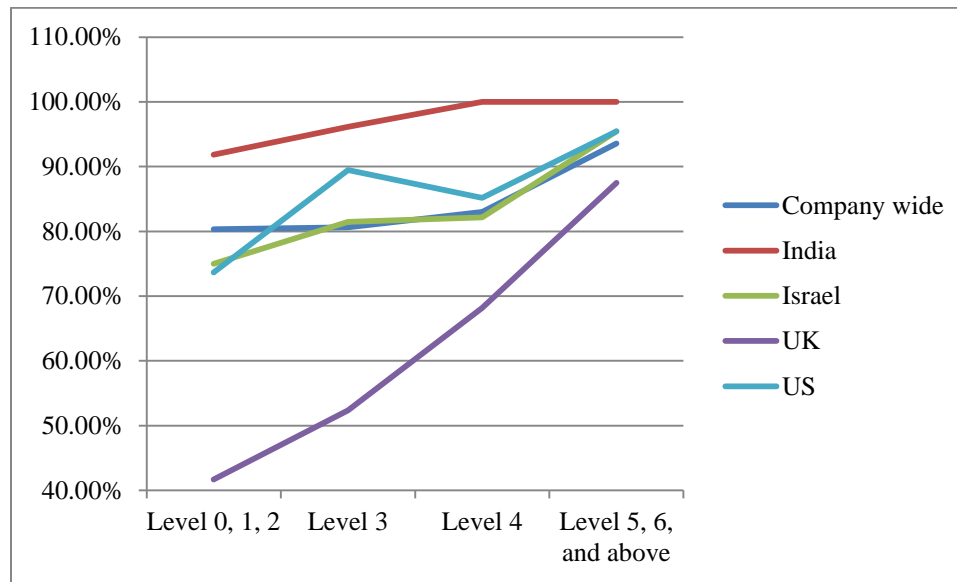


Figure 11. Percentage of participants agreed with the 17 leadership statements across different seniority levels (NJFT), at company and culture levels

Figures O32-O40 provides detailed frequency distributions of the responses from the participants across different seniority levels, and from different regions or cultures, regarding the RLS statements.

Figure 12 shows the RLS scores per home region. Participants from India have the highest mean score ($M = 5.530$, $SD = 0.528$). Participants from the United Kingdom home region have the lowest mean score ($M = 4.756$, $SD = 0.654$). Participants from Israel and the United States share similar mean scores, ($M = 5.114$, $SD = 0.573$) and ($M = 5.312$, $SD = 0.585$), which are significantly different from those from India and the United Kingdom (Tables T72-T92).

When participants were grouped by culture identity (Figure 13), the same distribution pattern was observed. Those identified culturally with the people from India have the highest mean RLS score ($M = 5.511$, $SD = 0.526$) while those identified with people from the United Kingdom have the lowest score ($M = 4.779$, $SD = 0.653$).

Participants identified culturally with people from Israel and the United States share

similar mean scores, ($M = 5.132$, $SD = 0.587$) and ($M = 5.280$, $SD = 0.598$), which are significantly different from those culturally identified with India and the United Kingdom (Tables V98-V101).

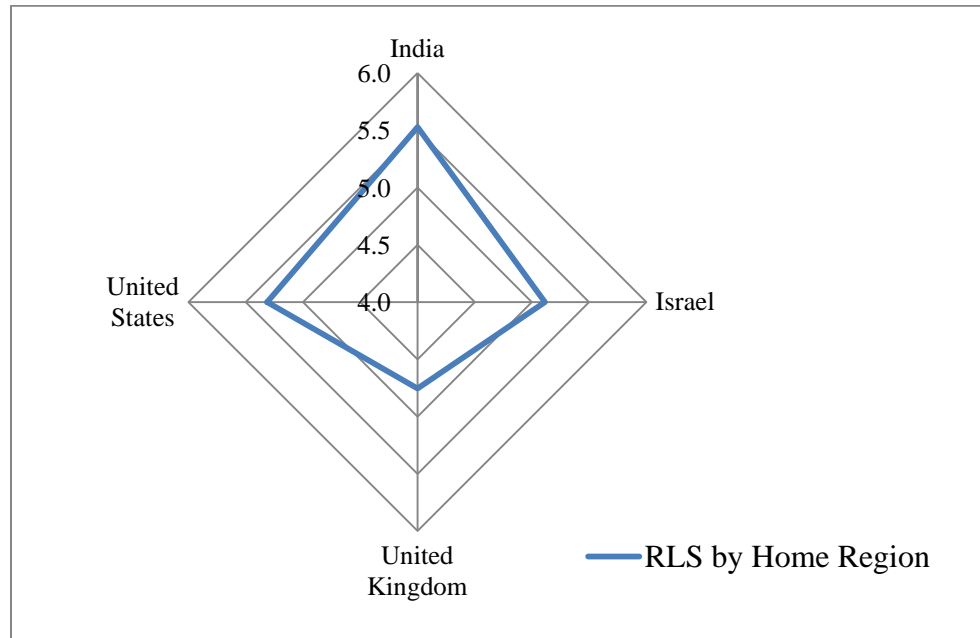


Figure 12. Mean romance of leadership scores across different regions

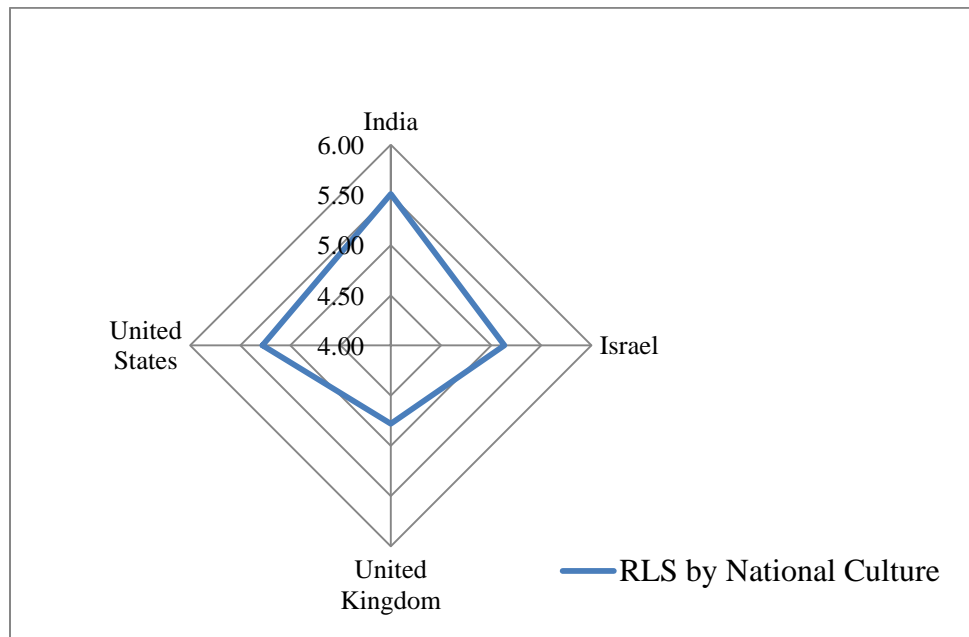


Figure 13. Mean romance of leadership scores across national cultures

The frequency distribution of participants' responses to the individual leadership statements in the survey is showed in Figure 14, using Microsoft Excel 100% Stacked Area form, and described in Tables T76-T92. Of the 17 leadership statements used in the survey (see Appendix B), the following 5 statements received the highest percentage of agreements (over 90%) among the study participants:

1. RLS statement 1, which states "When it comes right down to it, the quality of leadership is the single most important influence on the functioning of an organization."
2. RLS statement 3, which states "The great amount of time and energy devoted to choosing a leader is justified; because of the important influence that person is likely to have."
3. RLS statement 4, which states "Sooner or later, bad leadership at the top will show up in decreased organizational performance."
4. RLS statement 11, which states "It's probably a good idea to find something out about the quality of top-level leaders before investing in a firm."
5. RLS statement 13, which states "The process by which leaders are selected is extremely important."

Out of these 5 statements, 3 (statement 3, 11, and 13) refer to the importance of high quality leadership vetting was recognized among the study participants. However, a similar statement, RLS statement 17, stating "No expense should be spared when searching for and selecting a leader", did not receive as widespread an endorsement (about 60% of the participants agreed). This suggests some ambivalent about how far should the organization be investing in the leadership vetting process.

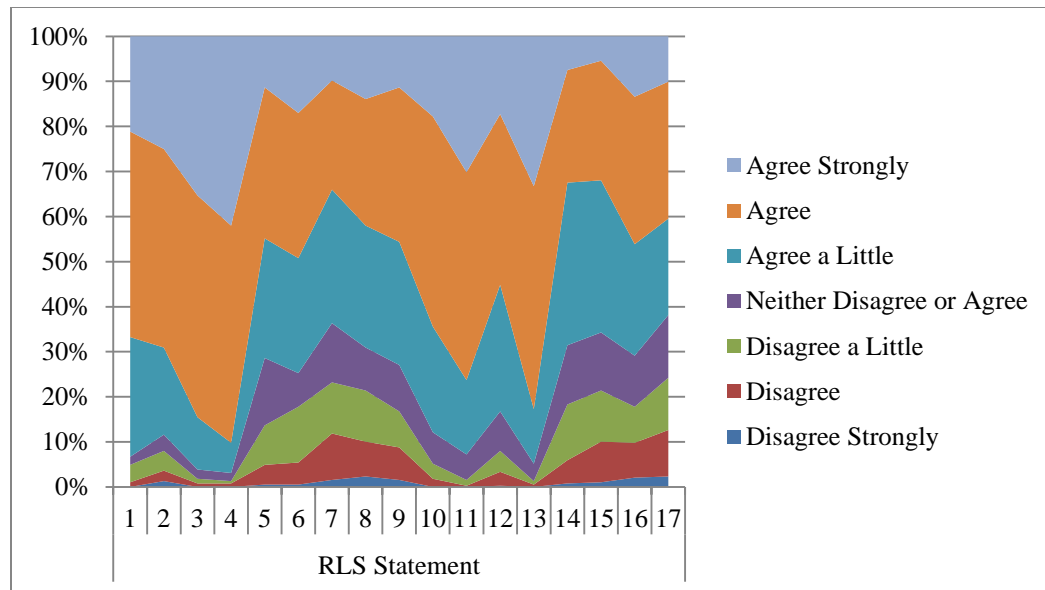


Figure 14. Frequency distribution of participant responses to individual RLS statements

About Big-Five personality trait factor scores. Descriptive statistics for the Big-Five personality trait factors are summarized in Table 8 and more detailed information is captured in Tables N47-N51. Standardized z-scores of skewness and kurtosis (Table 9) and Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) tests of normality (Table N52), however, showed that the sample distribution for personality trait factors were significantly not-normal. Again, using the argument of large sample, visual evaluation of the frequency distributions of Big-Five personality trait factors confirmed the normal shape of these distributions (Figures N27-N31).

Big-Five personality trait factor scores in this study were treated as normally distributed.

Test for homogeneity of variance, also known as Levene's test, confirmed that the hypothesis that the variances between personality trait factor scores among participants grouped by home region are approximately equal, p (two-tailed) > 0.05 based on mean (Table N53).

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of Big-Five Personality Trait Factors

	Mean	Median	SD	Range	95% Confident Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Extraversion	37.58	38.00	7.00	19.00-54.00	36.88	38.28
Agreeableness	50.18	51.00	6.07	31.00-63.00	49.58	50.79
Neuroticism	24.88	24.00	7.54	9.00-47.00	24.12	25.63
Conscientiousness	50.34	51.00	6.27	31.00-63.00	49.71	50.96
Openness	58.49	59.00	6.51	33.00-77.00	57.85	59.14

Unlike personality trait factors, there was no expectation of normal distribution for maturity factors such as age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level (JFT). Detailed descriptive statistics for these maturity factors are documented in Tables Q57-Q61 and Figures Q41-Q44. Some key descriptive statistics are summarized in Table 10.

Table 9

Standardized Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Personality Trait Factors

		Value	Std Error	z-scores
Extraversion	Skewness	-0.209	0.124	-1.685
	Kurtosis	-0.292	0.247	-1.182
Agreeableness	Skewness	-0.524	0.124	-4.226
	Kurtosis	-0.27	0.247	-1.093
Neuroticism	Skewness	0.352	0.124	2.839
	Kurtosis	-0.248	0.247	-1.004
Conscientiousness	Skewness	-0.403	0.124	-3.250
	Kurtosis	-0.241	0.247	-0.976
Openness	Skewness	-0.38	0.124	-3.065
	Kurtosis	0.608	0.247	2.462

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics of Maturity Factors

	Mean	Median	SD	Range	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Age	36.93	35	9.14	21-66	36.00	37.84
Years of College Education	4.78	5	1.88	0-12	4.59	4.96
Years of Working	13.26	12	9.25	0-46	12.34	14.19
Years of Managing	4.76	2	6.44	0-40	4.12	5.40

Problem Statement

What relationship, if any, exists between personality, maturity, and cultural background, and romance of leadership in a multinational organization?

Research Hypotheses

Research hypothesis 1: Is there a correlation between romance of leadership and the Big-Five personality trait factors? Research hypothesis 1 looks at the relationship between each factor of the Big Five personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism), and romance of leadership. A summary of the Pearson's correlation coefficient r values measuring the relationships between personality traits and romance of leadership is documented in Table 11.

Hypothesis 1.1: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and extraversion.

Simple correlation analysis showed that extraversion was positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership, $r(386) = .356, p$ (two-tailed) < 0.05 .

The null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between extraversion and romance of leadership was rejected.

In terms of predictability, 13% of the variation in mean RLS scores could be accounted for by extraversion ($R^2 = .1267$).

Hypothesis 1.2: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and neuroticism.

Simple correlation analysis showed that neuroticism was negatively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership, $r(386) = -.124$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . The null hypothesis asserting that there not a significant correlation between neuroticism and romance of leadership was rejected.

In terms of predictability, 2% of the variation in mean RLS scores could be accounted for by neuroticism ($R^2 = .0154$).

Hypothesis 1.3: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and conscientiousness.

Simple correlation analysis showed that conscientiousness was positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership, $r(386) = .199$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . The null hypothesis asserting that there not a significant correlation between neuroticism and romance of leadership was rejected.

In terms of predictability, 4% of the variation in mean RLS scores could be accounted for by conscientiousness ($R^2 = .0396$).

Hypothesis 1.4: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and agreeableness.

Simple correlation analysis showed that Agreeableness was positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership, $r(386) = .132$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . The null hypothesis asserting that there was not a significant correlation between agreeableness and romance of leadership was rejected.

In terms of predictability, 2% of the variation in mean RLS scores could be accounted for by agreeableness ($R^2 = .0174$).

Hypothesis 1.5: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and openness to experience.

Simple correlation analysis showed that openness to experience was positively and significantly correlated with mean RLS scores, $r(386) = .195$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . The null hypothesis asserting that there was not a significant correlation between agreeableness and romance of leadership was rejected.

In terms of predictability, about 4% of the variation in mean RLS scores could be accounted for by openness to experience ($R^2 = .0380$).

Table 11 showed that the Big-Five personality trait factors were significantly inter-correlated. Extraversion, for example, was positively and significantly correlated with agreeableness, consciousness, and openness to experience, while negatively and strongly correlated with neuroticism. This strong correlation among the personality trait factors suggests that some of the significant relationships found between personality trait factors and romance of leadership would potentially be excluded from the eventual predictive model generated by multiple linear regression analysis due to multicollinearity.

Summary of findings for research hypothesis 1. Regarding the correlation between romance of leadership and individual Big-Five trait factors, this study found

extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership. The study also found neuroticism was negatively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership. As a result, the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a correlation between any of these personality trait factors and romance of leadership was rejected. All correlations were performed at the company level.

Research hypothesis 2: Is there a correlation between romance of leadership and maturity? Research hypothesis 2 looks at the relationship between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership. As shown in Figures Q41-Q44, maturity scores collected from the survey responses were not normally distributed, thus Spearman's rank correlation coefficient analysis was utilized for the analysis of the relationship between personality trait factors and romance of leadership. The resulting correlation matrix is documented in Table 12.

Hypothesis 2.1: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and age.

The results of a correlation analysis showed that age was not significantly correlated with romance of leadership. The null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between age and romance of leadership was accepted.

Hypothesis 2.2: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and years of college education.

The results of a correlation analysis showed that years of college education was positively and significantly correlated with mean RLS scores, Spearman's rank

Table 11

Summary of the Correlations between Personality Trait Factors and Romance of Leadership

		RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.356**	.132**	-.124*	.199**	.195**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.009	.014	.000	.000
Extraversion	Pearson Correlation	.356**	1	.221**	-.296**	.309**	.347**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
Agreeableness	Pearson Correlation	.132**	.221**	1	-.503**	.436**	.097
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	.000		.000	.000	.057
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	-.124*	-.296**	-.503**	1	-.448**	-.196**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.000	.000		.000	.000
Conscientiousness	Pearson Correlation	.199**	.309**	.436**	-.448**	1	.210**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
Openness	Pearson Correlation	.195**	.347**	.097	-.196**	.210**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.057	.000	.000	

Note. $N = 388$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

coefficient $\rho = .189$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . The null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between agreeableness and romance of leadership was rejected.

In terms of predictability, 4% of the variation in romance of leadership could be accounted for by years of college education ($R^2 = .0357$).

Hypothesis 2.3: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and years of working.

The results of a correlation analysis showed that years of working was not significantly correlated with mean RLS scores. The null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between years of working and romance of leadership was accepted.

Hypothesis 2.4: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and years of managing.

The results of a correlation analysis showed that years of managing was positively and significantly correlated with mean RLS scores, $\rho = .162$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . The null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between years of managing and romance of leadership was rejected.

In terms of predictability, 3% of the variation in mean RLS scores could be accounted for by years of managing ($R^2 = .0262$).

Hypothesis 2.5: There is/is not a significant correlation between romance of leadership and seniority level within the organization.

The results of a simple correlation analysis showed that seniority level (JFT) was positively and significantly correlated with mean RLS scores, $\rho = .172$, p (two-tailed) $<$

0.05. The null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between seniority level and romance of leadership was rejected.

In terms of predictability, 3% of the variation in romance of leadership could be accounted for by seniority level (JFT; $R^2 = .0296$).

Summary of findings for research hypothesis 2. Regarding the correlation between romance of leadership and individual maturity factors, this study found years of managing, years of college education, and seniority level within the organization were positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership. As a result, the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a correlation between any of these factors and romance of leadership was rejected. Age and years of working were not significantly correlated with romance of leadership. All correlations were performed at the company level.

Research hypothesis 3: What are the differences in cultural background with regard to romance of leadership? Research hypothesis 3 looks at the difference in the mean RLS scores among different group of participants, separated by home region or culture identity.

Prior to conducting analysis of the difference between mean RLS scores among regional or cultural groups, several assumptions regarding these groups needed to be confirmed.

First, to meet the homogeneity of variance requirement, Levene's test was performed on the four regional groups confirming that there are adequate homogeneity of variance among these groups, $F(3, 384) = 2.287$ based on mean, p (two-tailed) > 0.05 (Tables U94). The same test was performed on the four cultural groups confirming that

the variances among these groups are approximately equal, $F(3, 384) = 2.622$ based on mean, $p \geq 0.05$ (Table V103). For Tables U94 and V103, p values are identified by column “Sig.”, as generated by SPSS.

Second, for test of normality, Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test was performed on the four cultural groups to confirm normal distribution within individual region (Table S74) and culture (Table V102). Except for the group of participants who identified themselves culturally with United Kingdom, all the groups were normally distributed, with p (two-tailed) > 0.05 . For Tables S74 and V102, p values are identified by column “Sig.”, as generated by SPSS.

Histograms of the frequency distribution of RLS for each region (Figures T45-T48) and each culture (Figure V50-V53) provide a visual confirmation of their normality.

Hypothesis 3.1: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants from different home regions with respect to romance of leadership.

The one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) technique was employed to analyze the differences in mean RLS scores among the four regional groups. The analysis showed that there were statistically significant differences between group means as determined by one-way ANOVA among regional groups, $F(3, 384) = 27.416$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 (Tables U93-U95).

Follow this finding, the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant difference between the mean values of romance of leadership among four regional groups India, Israel, United Kingdom and United States, was rejected.

Table 12

Summary of the Relationships between Maturity Factors and Romance of Leadership

		RLS	Age	Years of Working	Years of Managing	Years of College Education	Seniority Level (JFT)
RLS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.016	.016	.162**	.189**	.172**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.752	.747	.001	.000	.001
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.016	1.000	.932**	.621**	.018	.586**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.752		.000	.000	.729	.000
Years of Working	Correlation Coefficient	.016	.932**	1.000	.693**	-.018	.620**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.747	.000		.000	.728	.000
Years of Managing	Correlation Coefficient	.162**	.621**	.693**	1.000	-.006	.628**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000		.899	.000
Years of College Education	Correlation Coefficient	.189**	.018	-.018	-.006	1.000	.097
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.729	.728	.899		.055
Seniority Level (JFT)	Correlation Coefficient	.172**	.586**	.620**	.628**	.097	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.000	.055	

Note. $N = 388$. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Post-hoc analysis using Tukey's HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) technique found three distinct homogeneous groups (Tables U96-U97 and Figure U49). At one end of the spectrum of mean RLS scores, India had the highest mean RLS score of 5.53. At the other end of the spectrum, the United Kingdom had the lowest mean RLS score of 4.76. Israel and the United States occupied the middle of the spectrum and shared similar mean scores of 5.11 and 5.31, respectively. There was not a significant difference in the mean scores between Israel and the United States.

Figure 15 displayed a boxplot view of the distribution of the romance of leadership scores separated by home region. The horizontal reference lines on the graph formed a band where RLS score ranges from 3.50 to 4.49. Within this band is a value range where RLS scores belong to the neutral response category. An RLS score is neutral when the participant expressed on average "neither agree nor disagree" with the 17 leadership statements. Below the band is the region of disagreement to the 17 statements and above the band is the region of agreement.

Hypothesis 3.2: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants, each sharing a common national culture, with respect to romance of leadership.

The one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) technique was employed to analyze the differences in mean RLS scores among the four cultural groups. The analysis showed that there were statistically significant differences in group means as determined by the *F*-test, $F(3, 384) = 24.163$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 (Table W104-W108 and Figure W54).

Follow this finding, the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant difference between the mean values of romance of leadership among four cultural groups India, Israel, United Kingdom and United States, was rejected.

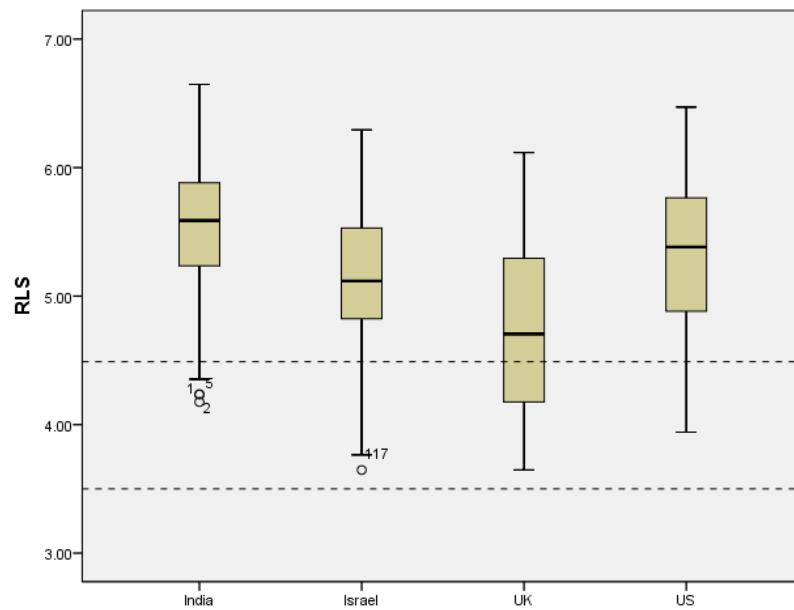


Figure 15. A boxplot of the distribution of romance of leadership scores, grouped by home region

Post-hoc analysis using Tukey's HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) technique found three distinct homogeneous groups (Tables W107-W108). Table W104 shows that participants from India had the highest mean RLS score of 5.51 ($SD = .53$), and participants from the United Kingdom had the lowest mean RLS score of 4.78 ($SD = .65$). Participants from Israel and the United States occupied the middle of the spectrum, with mean scores of 5.13 ($SD = .55$) and 5.28 ($SD = .60$), respectively. There was not a significant difference in the mean scores between Israel and the United States cultural groups. The finding from testing of hypothesis 3.2 is practically identical to the finding from testing of hypothesis 3.1.

Figure 16 displayed a boxplot view of the distribution of the romance of leadership scores separated by culture identity.

Hypothesis 3.3: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants, each sharing a common national culture from within the India home region, with respect to romance of leadership.

Analysis of the culture identity of participants from the India region found strong homogeneity within the group. Of the 98 participants ($n = 98$), 93 (95%) identified themselves culturally with people from India (Figure 17). As the result, an analysis comparing different cultures within the India home region could not be done with sample.

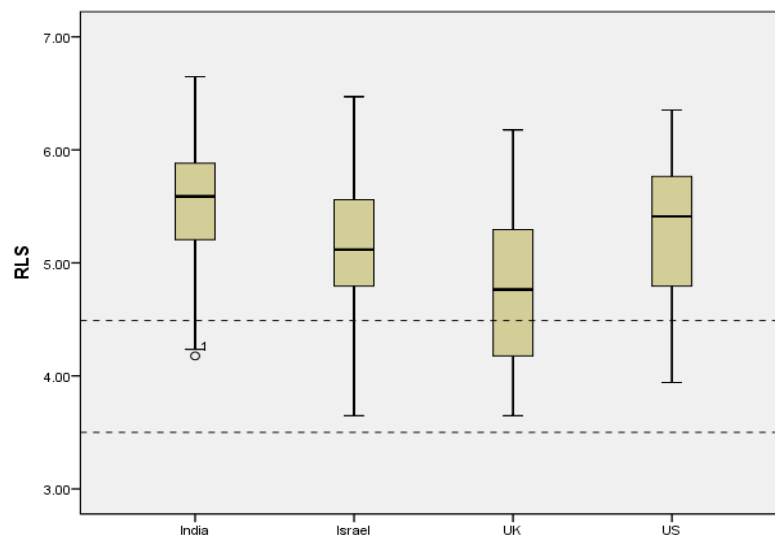


Figure 16. A boxplot of the distribution of romance of leadership scores, grouped by culture identity

Hypothesis 3.4: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants, each sharing a common national culture from within the Israel home region, with respect to romance of leadership.

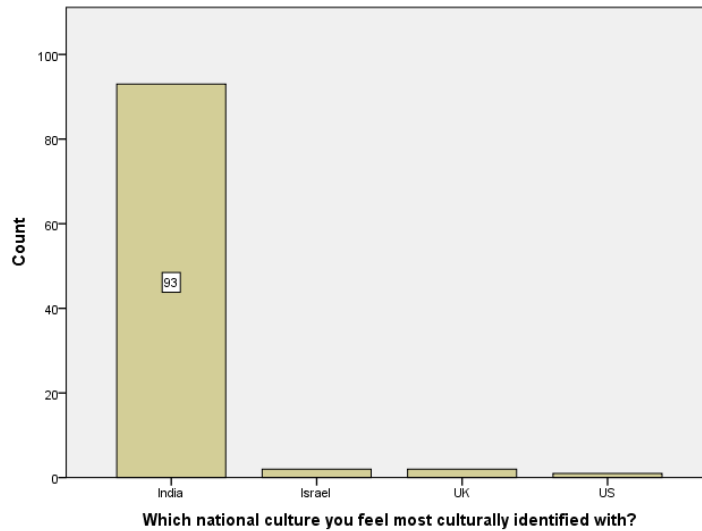


Figure 17. Frequency distribution of survey participants from the India region, grouped by culture identity

Similar to the situation discussed regarding testing hypothesis 3.3, analysis of the culture identity of participants found strong homogeneity among members of the group. Of the 123 participants ($n = 123$) from Israel, 114 (93%) identified themselves culturally with people from Israel (Figure 18). As the result, an analysis comparing different cultures within the Israel home region could not be done with sample.

Hypothesis 3.5: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants, each sharing a common national culture from within the United Kingdom home region, with respect to romance of leadership.

Similar to the situation discussed in hypothesis 3.3 and 3.4, analysis based on comparing different cultures within the United Kingdom region was not feasible in this study due to the homogeneity among the participants from the United Kingdom with respect to culture identity (Figure 19).

Hypothesis 3.6: There is/is not a significant difference among groups of participants, each sharing a common national culture, from within the United States home region with respect to romance of leadership.

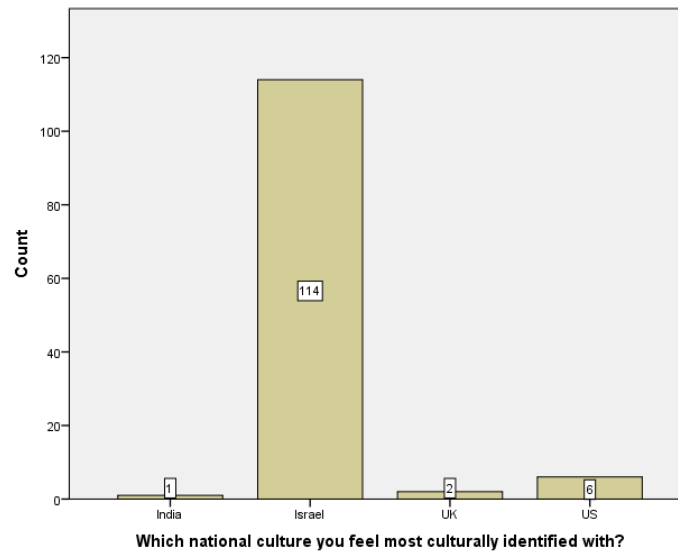


Figure 18. Frequency distribution of survey participants from the Israel region, grouped by culture identity

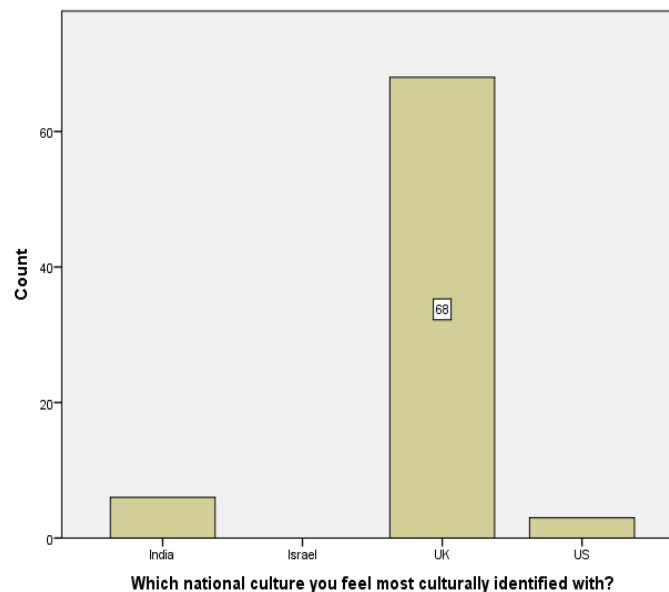


Figure 19. Frequency distribution of survey participants from the United Kingdom region, grouped by culture identity

Similar to hypothesis 3.3, 3.4, and 3.5, analysis based on comparing different cultures within the United States region was not feasible in this study due to the homogeneity among the participants from the United States with respect to culture identity (Figure 20).

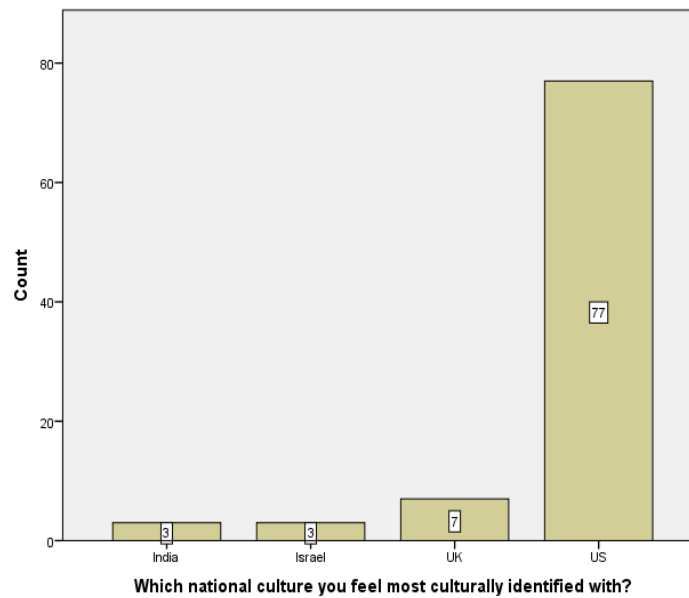


Figure 20. Frequency distribution of survey participants from the United States region, grouped by culture identity

Summary of findings for research hypothesis 3. Pertaining to the differences in cultural background with regard to romance of leadership, this study found that the mean RLS scores among regional and cultural groups were significantly different. Post-hoc analysis found three distinct groups based on mean RLS scores. In a separate group, India has the highest mean RLS score. In another group, the United Kingdom has the lowest mean RLS score. Israel and the United States shared a third group since there is not a significant difference between them with respect to mean RLS scores. The null hypothesis asserting that there is not a difference in cultural background with regard to romance of leadership was rejected.

The cultural homogeneity among the survey participants within each region prevented an analysis of the difference in mean RLS scores among these participants based on national culture.

Research hypothesis 4: Is there a correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants sharing a common cultural background? Research Hypothesis 4 looks at the correlation between individual personality trait factors and romance of leadership within each group of participants sharing a common cultural background, operationalized by home region and culture identity. Simple correlational analyses were performed and the resulting correlation matrices presented in Tables 13-20.

Hypothesis 4.1: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from the India home region.

Simple correlation analysis was done to evaluate the relationship between each personality trait factor and romance of leadership. For India, conscientiousness was positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership, $r(96) = .260, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. Therefore the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between conscientiousness and romance of leadership among the participants from India was rejected.

For other personality trait factors (extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, and openness to experience), there was not a significant correlation found so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these factors and romance of leadership among the participants from India was accepted.

The Pearson's correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between individual Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from India are shown in Table 13.

Hypothesis 4.2: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from the Israel home region.

For Israel, extraversion, $r(121) = .226, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$, and openness to experience, $r(121) = .277, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$, were positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership. Therefore the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between extraversion or openness to experience and romance of leadership among the participants from Israel was rejected.

For other personality trait factors (agreeableness, neuroticism, and conscientiousness), there was not a significant correlation found so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these factors and romance of leadership among the participants from Israel was accepted.

The Pearson's correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between individual Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from the Israel home region are shown in Table 14.

Hypothesis 4.3: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from the United Kingdom home region.

For the United Kingdom, extraversion was positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership, $r(75) = .396, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. Therefore the null

hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between extraversion and romance of leadership among the participants from the United Kingdom was rejected.

For other personality trait factors (agreeableness, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and openness to experience), there was not a significant correlation found so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these factors and romance of leadership among the participants from the United Kingdom was accepted.

The Pearson's correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between individual Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from the United Kingdom region are shown in Table 15.

Hypothesis 4.4: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from the United States home region.

For the United States, all five personality trait factors were found significantly correlated with romance of leadership. Extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were positively correlated with romance of leadership while Neuroticism was negatively correlated. As a result, the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between personality trait factors and romance of leadership among the participants from the United States was rejected.

For extraversion, $r(88) = .384, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. For agreeableness, $r(88) = .294, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. For neuroticism, $r(88) = -.229, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. For conscientiousness, $r(88) = .292, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. Finally, for openness to experience, $r(88) = .349, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$.

The Pearson's correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between individual Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants from the United States region are shown in Table 16.

Hypothesis 4.5: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants sharing the India culture identity.

For India, there was not a significant correlation between personality trait factors and romance of leadership. Therefore, the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between these personality trait factors and romance of leadership was accepted.

The correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants identified with the Indian culture are shown in Table 17.

Hypothesis 4.6: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants sharing the Israel culture identity.

For Israel, extraversion, $r(121) = .226, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < 0.05$, and openness to experience, $r(121) = .277, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < 0.05$, were found positively and significantly correlated to romance of leadership. Therefore the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

For other personality trait factors (agreeableness, neuroticism, and conscientiousness), there was not a significant correlation found so the null hypothesis

asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these factors and romance of leadership among the participants sharing the Israel culture identity was accepted.

The correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between individual Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants identified with the Israeli culture are shown in Table 18.

Hypothesis 4.7: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants sharing the United Kingdom culture identity.

For the United Kingdom, extraversion, $r(75) = .384, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$, and neuroticism, $r(75) = -.227, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$, were found significantly correlated with romance of leadership. Therefore the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between either extraversion or neuroticism, and romance of leadership were rejected.

For other personality trait factors (agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience), there was not a significant correlation found so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these factors and romance of leadership among the participants sharing the United Kingdom culture identity was accepted.

The Pearson's correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between individual Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants identified with the British culture are shown in Table 19.

Hypothesis 4.8: There is/is not a significant correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants sharing the United States culture identity.

For the United States, all personality trait factors excluding neuroticism were found significantly related with romance of leadership. For extraversion, $r(88) = .367$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For agreeableness, $r(88) = .261$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For conscientiousness, $r(88) = .273$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For openness to experience, $r(88) = .236$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . Therefore the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

For neuroticism, there was not a significant relationship found, so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant relationship between it and romance of leadership was accepted.

The correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between individual Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among participants identified with the American culture are shown in Table 20.

Summary of findings for research hypothesis 4. Regarding the correlation between individual personality trait factors and romance of leadership within each group of participants sharing a common cultural background, this study found mixed results:

Within the India regional group, conscientiousness was significantly correlated with romance of leadership. No significant correlation was found within the India cultural group.

Within the Israel regional group, extraversion and openness to experience were significantly correlated with romance of leadership. Within the Israeli culture group, the same correlations were found.

Within the United Kingdom regional group, extraversion was significantly correlated with romance of leadership. Within the United Kingdom cultural group, extraversion and neuroticism were significantly correlated with romance of leadership.

Within the United States home regional group, all five personality trait factors were significantly correlated with romance of leadership. However, within the United States cultural group, only extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were significantly correlated with romance of leadership.

Research hypothesis 5: Is there a correlation between maturity and romance of leadership among participants sharing a common cultural background? Research Hypothesis 5 looks at the correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and the romance of leadership for each group sharing a common cultural background, operationalized by home region and culture identity.

Hypothesis 5.1: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants from the India home region.

For the India regional group, maturity factors such as age, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level (JFT) were positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership. For age, $r(96) = .305$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For years of working, $r(96) = .338$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For years of managing, $r(96) = .252$, p

(two-tailed) < 0.05 . For seniority level (JFT), $r(96) = .340$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 .

Therefore, the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these personality trait factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

For years of college education, there was not a significant correlation found, so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between it and romance of leadership was accepted.

The Spearman's rank correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between maturity factors and romance of leadership among participants from the India home region are shown in Table 21.

Hypothesis 5.2: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants from the Israel home region.

For the Israel regional group, age, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level (JFT) were found significantly correlated with romance of leadership. For age, $r(121) = .212$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For years of working, $r(121) = .218$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For years of managing, $r(121) = .218$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . And for seniority level (JFT), $r(121) = .215$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . As the result, the null hypothesis asserting that any there is not a significant correlation between any these factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

For years of college education, there was not a significant correlation found, so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between it and romance of leadership was accepted.

The Spearman's rank correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between maturity factors and romance of leadership among participants from the Israel home region are shown in Table 22.

Hypothesis 5.3: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants from the United Kingdom home region.

For the United Kingdom regional group, years of managing and seniority level (JFT) were found positively and significantly related with romance of leadership. For years of managing, $r(75) = .355$, $p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. For seniority level (JFT), $r(75) = .412$, $p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. As the result, the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these maturity factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

For age, years of working, years of college education, there was not a significant correlation found, so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these maturity factors and romance of leadership was accepted.

The Spearman's rank correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between maturity factors and romance of leadership among participants from the United Kingdom home region are shown in Table 23.

Hypothesis 5.4: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants from the United States home region.

Table 13

Correlational Matrix for Participants from India Regional Offices

		RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.139	.140	-.015	.260**	.038
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.174	.168	.883	.010	.711
Extraversion	Pearson Correlation	.139	1	.367**	-.228*	.445**	.282**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.174		.000	.024	.000	.005
Agreeableness	Pearson Correlation	.140	.367**	1	-.569**	.562**	.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.168	.000		.000	.000	.170
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	-.015	-.228*	-.569**	1	-.433**	-.298**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.883	.024	.000		.000	.003
Conscientiousness	Pearson Correlation	.260**	.445**	.562**	-.433**	1	.228*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.000	.000	.000		.024
Openness	Pearson Correlation	.038	.282**	.140	-.298**	.228*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.711	.005	.170	.003	.024	

Note. $N = 98$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 14

Correlational Matrix for Participants from Israel Regional Offices

		RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.234**	-.102	.061	.034	.235**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.009	.261	.502	.707	.009
Extraversion	Pearson Correlation	.234**	1	.215*	-.194*	.259**	.400**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009		.017	.032	.004	.000
Agreeableness	Pearson Correlation	-.102	.215*	1	-.545**	.374**	-.018
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.261	.017		.000	.000	.844
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	.061	-.194*	-.545**	1	-.428**	-.156
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.502	.032	.000		.000	.084
Conscientiousness	Pearson Correlation	.034	.259**	.374**	-.428**	1	.206*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.707	.004	.000	.000		.022
Openness	Pearson Correlation	.235**	.400**	-.018	-.156	.206*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	.000	.844	.084	.022	

Note. $N = 123$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 15

Correlational Matrix for Participants from the United Kingdom Regional Offices

		RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.396**	.144	-.195	.150	.151
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.211	.090	.193	.191
Extraversion	Pearson Correlation	.396**	1	.092	-.514**	.207	.334**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.424	.000	.071	.003
Agreeableness	Pearson Correlation	.144	.092	1	-.376**	.288*	.071
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.211	.424		.001	.011	.537
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	-.195	-.514**	-.376**	1	-.298**	-.177
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.090	.000	.001		.009	.124
Conscientiousness	Pearson Correlation	.150	.207	.288*	-.298**	1	.075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.193	.071	.011	.009		.515
Openness	Pearson Correlation	.151	.334**	.071	-.177	.075	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.191	.003	.537	.124	.515	

Note. $N = 77$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 16

Correlational Matrix for Participants from the United States Regional Offices

		RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.384**	.294**	-.229*	.292**	.349**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.005	.030	.005	.001
Extraversion	Pearson Correlation	.384**	1	.192	-.171	.314**	.382**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.070	.106	.003	.000
Agreeableness	Pearson Correlation	.294**	.192	1	-.512**	.575**	.281**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.070		.000	.000	.007
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	-.229*	-.171	-.512**	1	-.621**	-.185
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	.106	.000		.000	.080
Conscientiousness	Pearson Correlation	.292**	.314**	.575**	-.621**	1	.291**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.003	.000	.000		.005
Openness	Pearson Correlation	.349**	.382**	.281**	-.185	.291**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.007	.080	.005	

Note. $N = 90$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 17

Correlational Matrix for Participants Identified Culturally with People from India

		RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.121	.093	.051	.183	.015
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.223	.348	.607	.064	.879
Extraversion	Pearson Correlation	.121	1	.343**	-.250*	.429**	.312**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.223		.000	.011	.000	.001
Agreeableness	Pearson Correlation	.093	.343**	1	-.566**	.556**	.150
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.348	.000		.000	.000	.129
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	.051	-.250*	-.566**	1	-.448**	-.348**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.607	.011	.000		.000	.000
Conscientiousness	Pearson Correlation	.183	.429**	.556**	-.448**	1	.273**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.064	.000	.000	.000		.005
Openness	Pearson Correlation	.015	.312**	.150	-.348**	.273**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.879	.001	.129	.000	.005	

Note. $N = 103$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 18

Correlational Matrix for Participants Identified Culturally with People from Israel

		RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.226*	-.113	.056	.045	.277**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.013	.221	.547	.629	.002
Extraversion	Pearson Correlation	.226*	1	.211*	-.185*	.236**	.397**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013		.021	.044	.010	.000
Agreeableness	Pearson Correlation	-.113	.211*	1	-.579**	.379**	-.021
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.221	.021		.000	.000	.824
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	.056	-.185*	-.579**	1	-.398**	-.160
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.547	.044	.000		.000	.083
Conscientiousness	Pearson Correlation	.045	.236**	.379**	-.398**	1	.223*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.629	.010	.000	.000		.015
Openness	Pearson Correlation	.277**	.397**	-.021	-.160	.223*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.824	.083	.015	

Note. $N = 119$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 19

Correlational Matrix for Participants Identified Culturally with People from the United Kingdom

		RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
		s					
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.384**	.176	-.227*	.135	.184
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.121	.044	.235	.105
Extraversion	Pearson Correlation	.384**	1	.009	-.490**	.155	.312**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.938	.000	.174	.005
Agreeableness	Pearson Correlation	.176	.009	1	-.347**	.325**	.061
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.121	.938		.002	.004	.591
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	-.227*	-.490**	-.347**	1	-.324**	-.151
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.044	.000	.002		.004	.183
Conscientiousness	Pearson Correlation	.135	.155	.325**	-.324**	1	.060
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.235	.174	.004	.004		.597
Openness	Pearson Correlation	.184	.312**	.061	-.151	.060	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.105	.005	.591	.183	.597	

Note. $N = 79$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 20

Correlational Matrix for Participants Identified Culturally with People from the United States

		RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.367**	.261*	-.173	.273*	.236*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.014	.109	.010	.028
Extraversion	Pearson Correlation	.367**	1	.237*	-.120	.321**	.350**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.027	.269	.002	.001
Agreeableness	Pearson Correlation	.261*	.237*	1	-.476**	.494**	.244*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.027		.000	.000	.023
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	-.173	-.120	-.476**	1	-.596**	-.126
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.109	.269	.000		.000	.243
Conscientiousness	Pearson Correlation	.273*	.321**	.494**	-.596**	1	.242*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.002	.000	.000		.024
Openness	Pearson Correlation	.236*	.350**	.244*	-.126	.242*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.028	.001	.023	.243	.024	

Note. $N = 87$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

For the United States region group, age was found significantly related with romance of leadership, $r(88) = .231, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. As the result, the null hypothesis asserting there is not a significant correlation between age and romance of leadership was rejected.

For years of working, years of managing, years of college education, and seniority level (JFT) there was not a significant correlation found, so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these maturity factors and romance of leadership were accepted.

The Spearman's rank correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between maturity factors and romance of leadership among participants from the United Kingdom home region are shown in Table 24.

Hypothesis 5.5: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants sharing the India culture identity.

For India cultural group, age, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level (JFT) were found significantly correlated with romance of leadership. For age, $r(101) = .261, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. For years of working, $r(101) = .281, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. For years of managing, $r(101) = .229, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. And for seniority level (JFT), $r(101) = .302, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. As the result, the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these maturity factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

For years of college education, there was not a significant correlation found, so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between it and romance of leadership was accepted.

The Spearman's rank correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between maturity factors and romance of leadership among participants identified with the Indian culture are shown in Table 25.

Hypothesis 5.6: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants sharing Israel culture identity.

For Israel cultural group, age, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level (JFT) were found significantly related with romance of leadership. For age, $r(117) = .206, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. For years of working, $r(117) = .225, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. For years of managing, $r(117) = .362, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. And for seniority level (JFT), $r(117) = .191, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. As the result, the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these maturity factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

For years of college education, there was not a significant correlation found, so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between it and romance of leadership was accepted.

The Spearman's rank correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between maturity factors and romance of leadership among participants identified with the Israeli culture were shown in Table 26.

Hypothesis 5.7: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants sharing the United Kingdom culture identity.

For the United Kingdom cultural group, years of managing and seniority level (JFT) were found positively and significantly related with romance of leadership. For years of managing, $r(77) = .375, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. And for seniority level (JFT), $r(77) = .487, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. As the result, the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these maturity factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

For age, years of working, years of college education, there was not a significant correlation found, so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these maturity factors and romance of leadership was accepted.

The Spearman's rank correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between maturity factors and romance of leadership among participants identified with the British culture are shown in Table 27.

Hypothesis 5.8: There is/is not a significant correlation between maturity (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level) and romance of leadership among participants sharing the United States culture identity.

For the United States region group, age and seniority level (JFT) were found significantly related with romance of leadership. For age, $r(85) = .269, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. And for seniority level (JFT), $r(85) = .248, p(\text{two-tailed}) < 0.05$. As the result, the

null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these maturity factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

For years of working, years of managing, and years of college education, there was not a significant correlation found between them and romance of leadership, so the null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these maturity factors and romance of leadership was accepted.

The Spearman's rank correlation coefficients that were used to measure the correlation between maturity factors and romance of leadership among participants identified with the American culture are shown in Table 28.

Summary of findings for research hypothesis 5. Regarding the correlation between maturity factors and the romance of leadership for each group of participants sharing a common cultural background, operationalized by home region and culture identity, this study found mixed results:

Within the India regional group, age, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level within the organization were significantly correlated with romance of leadership. The same correlations were found within the India cultural group.

Within the Israel regional group, age, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level within the organization were significantly correlated with romance of leadership. Within the Israeli culture group, the same correlations were found.

Within the United Kingdom regional group, years of managing and seniority level within the organization were significantly correlated with romance of leadership. Within the United Kingdom cultural group, the same correlations were found.

Table 21

Correlational Matrix for Participants from India Regional Offices

		RLS	Age	Years of Working	Years of Managing	Years of College Education	Seniority Level (JFT)
RLS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.305**	.338**	.252*	.110	.340**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002	.001	.012	.282	.001
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.305**	1.000	.879**	.553**	.354**	.758**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002		.000	.000	.000	.000
Years of Working	Correlation Coefficient	.338**	.879**	1.000	.698**	.198	.882**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000		.000	.050	.000
Years of Managing	Correlation Coefficient	.252*	.553**	.698**	1.000	.044	.687**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.000	.000		.664	.000
Years of College Education	Correlation Coefficient	.110	.354**	.198	.044	1.000	.181
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.282	.000	.050	.664		.075
Seniority Level (JFT)	Correlation Coefficient	.340**	.758**	.882**	.687**	.181	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.000	.075	

Note. $N = 98$. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 22

Correlational Matrix for Participants from Israel Regional Offices

		RLS	Age	Years of Working	Years of Managing	Years of College Education	Seniority Level (JFT)
RLS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.212 [*]	.218 [*]	.334 ^{**}	.067	.215 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.018	.015	.000	.461	.017
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.212 [*]	1.000	.932 ^{**}	.663 ^{**}	.344 ^{**}	.498 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.018		.000	.000	.000	.000
Years of Working	Correlation Coefficient	.218 [*]	.932 ^{**}	1.000	.700 ^{**}	.310 ^{**}	.500 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.015	.000		.000	.000	.000
Years of Managing	Correlation Coefficient	.334 ^{**}	.663 ^{**}	.700 ^{**}	1.000	.208 [*]	.567 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.021	.000
Years of College Education	Correlation Coefficient	.067	.344 ^{**}	.310 ^{**}	.208 [*]	1.000	.339 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.461	.000	.000	.021		.000
Seniority Level (JFT)	Correlation Coefficient	.215 [*]	.498 ^{**}	.500 ^{**}	.567 ^{**}	.339 ^{**}	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.017	.000	.000	.000	.000	

Note. $N = 123$. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients. ^{*} p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ^{**} p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 23

Correlational Matrix for Participants from the United Kingdom Regional Offices

		RLS	Age	Years of Working	Years of Managing	Years of College Education	Seniority Level (JFT)
RLS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.130	.167	.355**	.120	.412**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.262	.146	.002	.300	.000
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.130	1.000	.950**	.627**	-.101	.431**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.262		.000	.000	.382	.000
Years of Working	Correlation Coefficient	.167	.950**	1.000	.699**	-.190	.486**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.146	.000		.000	.098	.000
Years of Managing	Correlation Coefficient	.355**	.627**	.699**	1.000	.019	.746**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000		.870	.000
Years of College Education	Correlation Coefficient	.120	-.101	-.190	.019	1.000	.088
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.300	.382	.098	.870		.448
Seniority Level (JFT)	Correlation Coefficient	.412**	.431**	.486**	.746**	.088	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.448	

Note. $N = 77$. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 24

Correlational Matrix for Participants from the United States Regional Offices

		RLS	Age	Years of Working	Years of Managing	Years of College Education	Seniority Level (JFT)
RLS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.231*	.110	.132	.032	.180
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.028	.302	.216	.766	.089
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.231*	1.000	.900**	.485**	.122	.489**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.028		.000	.000	.251	.000
Years of Working	Correlation Coefficient	.110	.900**	1.000	.577**	-.007	.488**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.302	.000		.000	.947	.000
Years of Managing	Correlation Coefficient	.132	.485**	.577**	1.000	-.136	.425**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.216	.000	.000		.202	.000
Years of College Education	Correlation Coefficient	.032	.122	-.007	-.136	1.000	.020
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.766	.251	.947	.202		.853
Seniority Level (JFT)	Correlation Coefficient	.180	.489**	.488**	.425**	.020	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.089	.000	.000	.000	.853	

Note. $N = 90$. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients. * p (two-tailed) < .05. ** p (two-tailed) < .01.

Table 25

Correlational Matrix for Participants Who Identified Culturally with People from India

		RLS	Age	Years of Working	Years of Managing	Years of College Education	Seniority Level (JFT)
RLS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.261**	.281**	.229*	.080	.302**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.008	.004	.020	.422	.002
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.261**	1.000	.893**	.593**	.340**	.713**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008		.000	.000	.000	.000
Years of Working	Correlation Coefficient	.281**	.893**	1.000	.712**	.220*	.791**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.000		.000	.025	.000
Years of Managing	Correlation Coefficient	.229*	.593**	.712**	1.000	.098	.592**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.020	.000	.000		.326	.000
Years of College Education	Correlation Coefficient	.080	.340**	.220*	.098	1.000	.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.422	.000	.025	.326		.158
Seniority Level (JFT)	Correlation Coefficient	.302**	.713**	.791**	.592**	.140	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000	.000	.158	

Note. $N = 103$. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 26

Correlational Matrix for Participants Who Identified Culturally with People from Israel

		RLS	Age	Years of Working	Years of Managing	Years of College Education	Seniority Level (JFT)
RLS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.206 [*]	.225 [*]	.362 ^{**}	.044	.191 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025	.014	.000	.637	.038
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.206 [*]	1.000	.927 ^{**}	.660 ^{**}	.333 ^{**}	.527 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025		.000	.000	.000	.000
Years of Working	Correlation Coefficient	.225 [*]	.927 ^{**}	1.000	.692 ^{**}	.291 ^{**}	.532 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.000		.000	.001	.000
Years of Managing	Correlation Coefficient	.362 ^{**}	.660 ^{**}	.692 ^{**}	1.000	.185 [*]	.586 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.044	.000
Years of College Education	Correlation Coefficient	.044	.333 ^{**}	.291 ^{**}	.185 [*]	1.000	.334 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.637	.000	.001	.044		.000
Seniority Level (JFT)	Correlation Coefficient	.191 [*]	.527 ^{**}	.532 ^{**}	.586 ^{**}	.334 ^{**}	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.038	.000	.000	.000	.000	

Note. $N = 119$. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients. ^{*} p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ^{**} p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 27

Correlational Matrix for Participants Who Identified Culturally with People from the United Kingdom

		RLS	Age	Years of Working	Years of Managing	Years of College Education	Seniority Level (JFT)
RLS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.086	.129	.375**	.007	.487**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.450	.257	.001	.954	.000
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.086	1.000	.913**	.554**	-.016	.351**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.450		.000	.000	.891	.002
Years of Working	Correlation Coefficient	.129	.913**	1.000	.657**	-.113	.395**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.257	.000		.000	.321	.000
Years of Managing	Correlation Coefficient	.375**	.554**	.657**	1.000	.052	.726**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000		.651	.000
Years of College Education	Correlation Coefficient	.007	-.016	-.113	.052	1.000	.159
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.954	.891	.321	.651		.161
Seniority Level (JFT)	Correlation Coefficient	.487**	.351**	.395**	.726**	.159	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002	.000	.000	.161	

Note. $N = 79$. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table 28

Correlational Matrix for Participants Who Identified Culturally with People from the United States

		RLS	Age	Years of Working	Years of Managing	Years of College Education	Seniority Level (JFT)
RLS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.269*	.153	.115	.103	.248*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.012	.158	.289	.340	.021
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.269*	1.000	.918**	.553**	.108	.551**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012		.000	.000	.318	.000
	N	87	87	87	87	87	87
Years of Working	Correlation Coefficient	.153	.918**	1.000	.652**	-.017	.551**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.158	.000		.000	.879	.000
Years of Managing	Correlation Coefficient	.115	.553**	.652**	1.000	-.087	.497**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.289	.000	.000		.424	.000
Years of College Education	Correlation Coefficient	.103	.108	-.017	-.087	1.000	.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.340	.318	.879	.424		.273
Seniority Level (JFT)	Correlation Coefficient	.248*	.551**	.551**	.497**	.119	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.021	.000	.000	.000	.273	

Note. $N = 87$. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Within the United States home regional group, age was the only maturity factor significantly correlated with romance of leadership. Within the United States cultural group, age and seniority level within the organization were significantly correlated with romance of leadership.

Research hypothesis 6: Is there a correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors, maturity, culture background and romance of leadership?

Research Hypothesis 6 looks at the relationship between three set of independent variables personality trait factors, maturity, cultural background, and the dependent variable romance of leadership. Partial correlation analysis was performed to analyze the relationship between personality and romance of leadership after controlling for maturity and culture background. Hierarchical linear regression analysis was performed to generate a predictive model for romance of leadership based on all three independent factors.

Hypothesis 6.1: There is/is not a significant correlation between Big-Five personality trait factors (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism), maturity factors (age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and seniority level), and cultural background (home region, and culture identity) with regard to romance of leadership.

Hierarchical linear regression analysis of romance of leadership on personality trait factors, maturity, and culture background. The predictor variables selected for the hierarchical linear regression analysis were those variables that were previously found to be significantly correlated with romance of leadership at the company level from Hypotheses 1 and 2. These included the five personality trait factors

in Table 11 (extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and openness to experience), and the three maturity factors in Table 12 (years of college education, years of managing, and seniority level (JFT)).

To include categorical variables such as home region and culture identity into the predictive models for romance of leadership required the use of a technique known as dummy coding. Using dummy coding, each value of a categorical variable is given by a numeric code, represented by multiple numeric values of 0 and one value of 1. One categorical value is designated a baseline value, represented by all 0s. Once assigned, these numeric codes are used in the regression rather than the original variable.

In this analysis, using the United Kingdom was designated as the baseline variable and three dummy variables India-vs-UK, Israel-vs-UK, and US-vs-UK were created. The United Kingdom was represented by dummy code 000, while the other three home regions were represented by dummy codes 100, 010, and 001, respectively (Table 29).

Table 29

Dummy Coding for Region and Culture Variables

Culture Identity or Home Region	Dummy Variables			
		India-vs-UK	Israel-vs-UK	US-vs-UK
	India	1	0	0
	Israel	0	1	0
	United Kingdom	0	0	0
	United States	0	0	1

Hierarchical linear regression analysis of romance of leadership was performed with the personality, maturity, and cultural background factors entered into SPSS as

separate blocks of independent variables (Table 30). Variables within each block were processed by the stepwise regression methods following a predetermined order of entry. In SPSS, one block of variables are entered into the regression model at a time, starting with block number 1.

For forced entry method, known in SPSS as Enter, all variables in the block were evaluated all together. This method reflects the investigator's belief that these predictor variables are all significant predictors of romance of leadership.

Table 30

Blocks of Independent Variables used in Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis

	Independent Variables	Method in SPSS
Block 1	Extraversion Openness to Experience	Enter
Block 2	Seniority Level (JFT) Years of Managing	Forward (Stepwise)
Block 3	India-vs-UK (by home region or culture identity) Israel-vs-UK (by home region or culture identity) US-vs-UK (by home region or culture identity)	Enter
Block 4	Agreeableness Neuroticism Conscientiousness Years of Working	Forward (Stepwise)

For this study, the decision for putting the predictor variables into which blocks was done based on an analysis of the previous tests and a review of published data. For instance, extraversion and openness to experience personality trait factors were significantly correlated with, and the most consistent predictors of romance of leadership so they were put together into block 1. Seniority level (JFT) and years of managing were

strongly correlated so there is a good chance that one of these two predictors will eventually be removed. They were put together into block 2 marked for forward stepwise regression.

For forward stepwise regression, known in SPSS as Forward, each independent variable inside a block is sequentially entered into the list of candidate predictors. Upon entering, a removal test is performed to identify the least useful or the most redundant predictor in that list for removal. The final regression model contains all the remained predictors that could not be removed.

With home region represented by dummy variables, the resulting predictive model was:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Romance of Leadership (based on home region)} = & \\ & 3.06 + 0.20 (\text{Extraversion}) + 0.10 (\text{Openness to Experience}) \\ & + .103 (\text{Seniority Level (JFT)}) + .787 (\text{India vs UK region}) \\ & + .402 (\text{Israel vs UK region}) + .491 (\text{US vs UK region}) \end{aligned}$$

Tables X109-X114 document the results of the hierarchical linear regression analysis where home region was included as a predictor variable.

Hierarchical linear regression analysis showed that 31% of the variation in romance of leadership could be explained by a combination of predictor variables: extraversion, openness to experience, seniority level (JFT) and home region as represented by three dummy variables. $R = .555$, $R^2 = .308$, $Adjusted R^2 = .297$, $F_{change}(3, 381) = 27.964$, and $p < 0.05$ (Table X111).

The contributions of the predictor variables to the predictability of romance of leadership included approximately 13% (R^2 of model 1 = .133) from extraversion and

openness to experience, 2% (R^2 of model 2 – R^2 of model 1 = .023) from seniority level (JFT), and 15% (R^2 of model 3 – R^2 of model 2 = .152) from home region, using dummy codes (Table X111).

Adjusted R^2 measurement in SPSS was computed to determine the loss of predictive power, or shrinkage, if the model was derived from the population instead of a particular sample. Looking at the contribution of individual predictors in the model through Adjusted R^2 , the percentages of predictability in romance of leadership that could be accounted for by extraversion and openness to experience were 13% (*Adjusted R^2* of model 1 = .128), by seniority level was 2% (*Adjusted R^2* of model 2 – *Adjusted R^2* of model 1 = .021), and by culture identity was 15% (*Adjusted R^2* of model 3 – *Adjusted R^2* of model 2 = .148), respectively (Table X111).

Cross-validation showed that this predictive model using home region generalized well for our population. For this sample, the difference for the final model is small (R^2 – *Adjusted R^2* = .011). The model would have lost only 1% of its power in accounting for the change in mean RLS score in the population.

Analysis of collinearity in the data showed that the VIF values of all predictor variables were well below 10 and tolerance statistics were well above .2. Based on the guideline suggested in Field (2005), these VIF values confirmed that collinearity was not a problem for this model. The assumption of no multicollinearity was held (Table X113).

Casewise diagnostics showed that 16 out of 388 (4%) participants have standardized residuals over ± 2 . According to Field (2005), this number conformed well within the normal allowance for a fairly accurate predictive model. For 95% of the cases, mean RLS scores reflected closely predicted RLS values computed with their

standardized residual values, i.e., their differences, felt within ± 2 . It is reasonable to expect an accurate predictive model to have up to 5% of its cases having standardized residuals over ± 2 (Table X114).

With culture identity represented by dummy variables, the resulting predictive model was:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Romance of Leadership (based on culture identity)} = & \\ & 3.136 + .019 (\text{Extraversion}) + .010 (\text{Openness to Experience}) \\ & + .107 (\text{Seniority Level (JFT)}) + .741 (\text{India vs UK culture}) \\ & + .406 (\text{Israel vs UK culture}) + .454 (\text{US vs UK culture}) \end{aligned}$$

Tables Y115-Y120 document the results of the hierarchical linear regression analysis where culture identity was included as a predictor variable.

Hierarchical linear regression analysis showed that 29% of the variability of romance of leadership can be accounted for by the following predictor variables: extraversion, openness to experience, seniority level (JFT) and culture identity, represented by three dummy variables, $R = .537$, $R^2 = .289$, $Adjusted R^2 = .277$, $F_{change} (3, 381) = 23.746$, and $p < 0.05$ (Table Y117).

The contribution of the predictor variables to the predictability of romance of leadership included 13% (R^2 of model 1 = .133) from extraversion and openness to experience, 2% (R^2 of model 2 – R^2 of model 1 = .023) from seniority level, and 13% (R^2 of model 3 – R^2 of model 2 = .133) from culture identity, using dummy codes (Table Y117).

With $Adjusted R^2$, the percentages of predictability in romance of leadership that could be accounted for by extraversion and openness to experience were 13% ($Adjusted$

R^2 of model 1 = .128), by seniority level (JFT) was 2% (*Adjusted R^2* of model 2 – *Adjusted R^2* of model 1 = .021), and by culture identity was 13% (*Adjusted R^2* of model 3 – *Adjusted R^2* of model 2 = .128), respectively (Table Y117).

Cross-validation showed the difference for the final model is small (R^2 – *Adjusted R^2* = .012). The model would have lost only 1% its power in accounting for the variance in the romance of leadership in the population. Also the confidence intervals of the predictors all excluded zero, indicating the model is a reliable model and that the true value of all unstandardized coefficients computed are close to their true values in the population.

Analysis of collinearity confirmed the assumption of no multicollinearity is held in this model. All VIF values were less than 10 and tolerance values were less than ± 2 (Table Y119).

Casewise diagnostics showed that 17 out of 388 (4%) participants had standardized residuals over ± 2 , confirming that the sample conformed to what would be expected for a fairly accurate model (Table Y120).

Comparing the two predictive models generated from the hierarchical linear regression analysis showed that there was little difference between the use of home region or culture identity in this study.

Reevaluation the sample data showed that of the 388 participants analyzed, only 36 (9%) identified themselves with a culture that is not the dominant culture in their regions. The majority of the participants, more than 90%, identified with the culture of the majority from their home regions. This observation suggested that the predictive model based on home region remained stable despite 10% of the participants identified

themselves with a culture other than the one shared among those within their home region.

Years of managing was excluded from both predictive models although it was just as consistently correlated with romance of leadership as seniority level (JFT). The exclusion of years of managing by the hierarchical linear regression process was probably due to the high correlation between it and seniority level, $\rho = .628$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 .

Seniority level as a moderator variable of personality and romance of leadership. To further understand how personality trait factors impact romance of leadership over time, post-hoc analysis of the moderating effect of seniority level on the correlations between personality trait factors and romance of leadership were performed (Figure 22).

When the five-category seniority level (NJFT) was introduced as a moderator variable, different correlational outcomes between personality trait factors and romance of leadership were observed (Tables Z121-Z124). The correlation between extraversion and romance of leadership at the company level was replicated across all seniority levels. For Level 0-2, the magnitude of this correlation was $r(120) = .332$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For Level 3, $r(91) = .387$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For Level 4, $r(93) = 0.387$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For Level 5 and above, $r(78) = .326$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . This finding confirms that the correlation between extraversion and romance of leadership is durable, spanning across all seniority levels in the organization.

Openness to experience and conscientiousness were both found positively significant among employees in Level 3 and 4 of the organization. For openness to experience, the correlation coefficients $r(91) = .291$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 , for Level 3

and $r(93) = .246, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < .05$ for Level 4. For conscientiousness, the correlation coefficients $r(91) = .258, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < .05$, for Level 3 and $r(93) = .282, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < 0.05$.

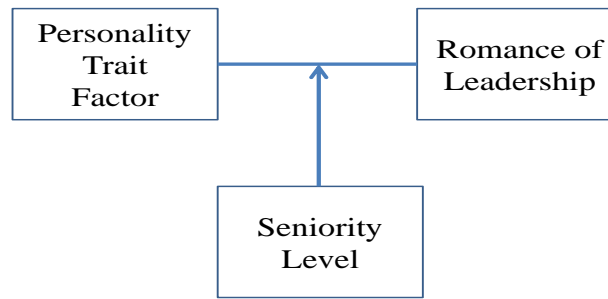


Figure 21. Seniority level as a moderator variable of the relationship between personality trait factors and romance of leadership

Neuroticism was negatively correlated with romance of leadership across all levels of the organization. However, the correlation only rose to the level of significance among Level 4 employees, $r(93) = -.266, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < 0.05$.

Except for extraversion, the study found seniority level (NJFT) moderates the relationships between personality trait factors and romance of leadership since no correlation was consistently replicated across all levels.

Gender as a moderator variable between personality and romance of leadership. The original set of research hypotheses did not include evaluating of the impact of gender on the relationship between personality trait factors and romance of leadership. Among the participants completed the survey, 82 out of 388 (21%) were female. This number is large enough to allow for post-hoc analyses based on gender.

Comparison of difference of means of the RLS scores using independent samples t-test found not a significant difference between male and female participants with

respect to romance of leadership ($M_{male} = 5.172$, $SD = .634$; $M_{female} = 5.276$, $SD = .652$; Tables P55-P56).

Simple Pearson's correlational coefficients were computed for personality trait factors and romance of leadership, controlling for gender (Figure 21; Tables AA125 and AA126). For the 306 male participants, the same set of significant correlations observed at the company level was replicated. For extraversion, $r(304) = .332$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For agreeableness, $r(304) = .116$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For neuroticism, $r(304) = -.131$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For conscientiousness, $r(304) = .219$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . And finally, for openness to experience, $r(304) = .166$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . The null hypotheses asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these personality trait factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

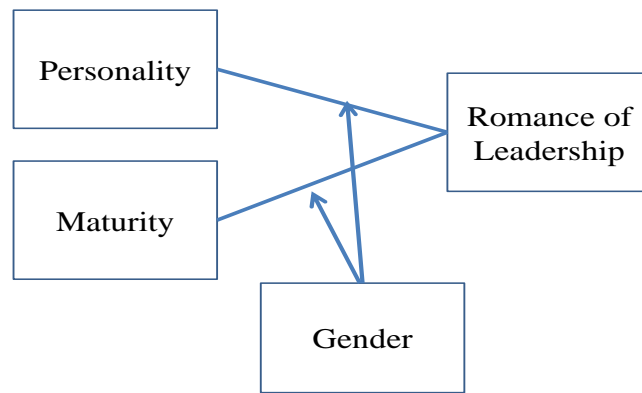


Figure 22. Gender as a moderator variable of the relationships between romance of leadership and personality and maturity

For female participants, the correlations between extraversion and openness to experience, and romance of leadership found at the company level were replicated. For extraversion, $r(80) = .419$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 , and openness to experience, $r(80) = .360$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . The null hypotheses asserting that there is no correlation between these personality trait factors and romance of leadership were rejected.

The correlations between agreeableness, neuroticism, and conscientiousness, and romance of leadership, found at the company level were inhibited among female participants. So the null hypotheses asserting that there is no correlation between these personality trait factors and romance of leadership were accepted.

Multiple linear regression analysis, using SPSS stepwise method, between all personality trait factors and romance of leadership among male participants ($n = 306$) found that extraversion was the strongest predictor variable ($R = .332$, $R^2 = .110$, $Fchange = 37.539$, $p < 0.05$). Combining with consciousness ($R = .019$, $Fchange = 4.681$, $p < 0.05$), these independent variables can account for 11% of the variability of romance of leadership (Tables AB127-AB131).

The same analysis was done among female participants ($n = 82$) found that extraversion was the strongest predictor variable ($R = .419$, $R^2 = .176$, $Adjusted R^2 = .166$, $Fchange = 17.071$, $p < 0.05$). Extraversion can account for 17.6% of the variability of romance of leadership among female participants (Tables AC132-AC137).

These regression analyses together suggest that extraversion is the strongest predictor variable of romance of leadership across both genders. Between male and female participants, this predictor variable has a stronger predictive power among female participants.

Gender as a moderator variable between maturity and romance of leadership. Simple Spearman's rank correlational coefficients were computed for maturity factors and romance of leadership, controlling for gender (Tables AD138 and AD139). For the 306 male participants, the same set of significant correlations observed at the company level was replicated. For years of managing, $r(304) = .127$, p (two-

tailed) < 0.05 . For years of college education, $r(304) = .199$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For seniority level (JFT), $r(304) = .154$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . The null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these maturity factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

For the 82 female participants, years of managing and seniority level (JFT) were significantly correlated with romance of leadership. The null hypothesis asserting that there is not a significant correlation between any of these maturity factors and romance of leadership was rejected.

Romance of leadership among female participants across different seniority levels. Analysis of the percentage of female participants agreeing with the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level, is showed in Figures 23 and 24.

In Figure 23, 27 out of 33 female participants between level 0 and 2 agreed with these 17 leadership statements and 6 female participants took a neutral position while none disagreed. For level 5 and above, all 12 female participants agreed with the 17 statements.

As summarized in Figure 24, across all four levels measured, the percentage of female participants agreeing with the leadership statements ranges between 74% and 100%. Except for a dip in level 3, the same upward trend in the percentage of participants romanticizing leadership was observed among the female participants, suggesting a general increased in leadership romanticism among more senior level participants.

In addition, starting from level 4 and up, the percentage of female participants romanticizing leadership surpassed the one measured of male participants by a significant

margin suggesting proportionally there is a higher degree of leadership romanticism among female participants in higher seniority levels.

Romance of leadership among male participants across different regions and seniority levels. Figure 25 displays the percentage of male participants agreeing with the 17 leadership statements in both company and region levels. Comparing to Figure 10, the percentage difference among the more junior participants, levels 0-3, was even greater between the United Kingdom and the other three regions. For India, the percentage of male participants agreeing with the leadership statements remains approximately the same, approximately 92%, as observed in Figure 10 when female participants were included. This analysis showed that the presence of female participants did not have an effect on the high percentage of the junior participants from India romanticizing leadership. For Israel and the United States, the percentages of junior participants between level 0 and 3 romanticizing leadership, approximately 75% and 78% respectively, are greater with the exclusion of female participants. For the United Kingdom, the percentage of junior participants agreeing with the leadership statements decreases when female participants were excluded. Overall, the upward trend across different levels of seniority is still observable among male participants (Figure 25).

Figure 23, Figure AE55, and Table AE140 contain the data used to generate Figure 24. And Figures AE56-AE59 and Table AE141 contain the data used to generate Figure 25.

Partial correlation analysis of the relationship between personality trait factors and romance of leadership, controlling for maturity, gender, and culture background. To determine the uniqueness of the correlation between personality trait

factors and romance of leadership, partial correlation analyses were performed where the effects of age, seniority level, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, gender, and home region were removed. The resulting partial correlation coefficients for each participating home region are documented in Tables 32-35. For comparison, a partial correlation analysis where the effect of age, seniority level, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, and gender were removed was also performed (Table 31).

Partial correlation analysis of participants from the India home region (Table 32) found conscientiousness to be positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership after controlling for the factors mentioned above, $r(90) = .261$, p (two-tailed) $< .05$. Partial correlation analysis showed that 7% ($R^2 = .0681$) of the variance in romance of leadership is uniquely accounted for by conscientiousness. Extraversion, agreeableness, and openness to experience were correlated with romance of leadership, but their correlations were not significant. Comparing to the analysis performed in Research Hypothesis 1, this analysis confirms that the variance in romance of leadership that is accounted for by conscientiousness is not the same variance that is accounted for by maturity or gender, measured among the participants from India.

Among those from the Israel home region (Table 33), extraversion ($r(116) = .238$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05) and openness to experience ($r(115) = .275$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05) were positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership. The analysis showed about 6% ($R^2 = .0566$) and 8% ($R^2 = .0756$) of the variance in romance of leadership is uniquely accounted for by extraversion and openness to experience, respectively. This analysis confirms that the variance in romance of leadership that is

accounted for by extraversion and openness to experience is not the same variance that is accounted for by maturity or gender, measured among the participants from Israel.

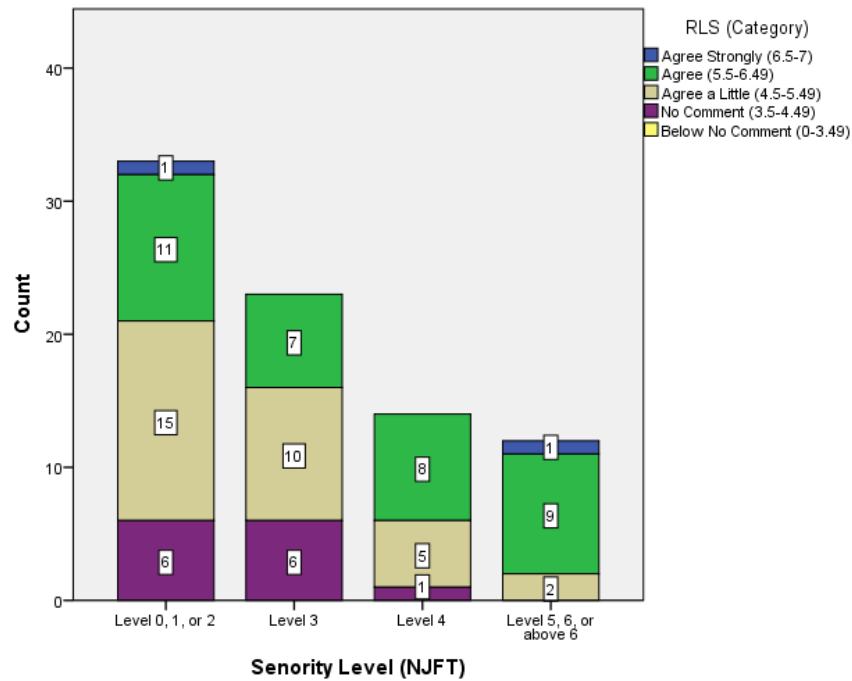


Figure 23. Frequency distribution of the average scores of female participant responses to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level

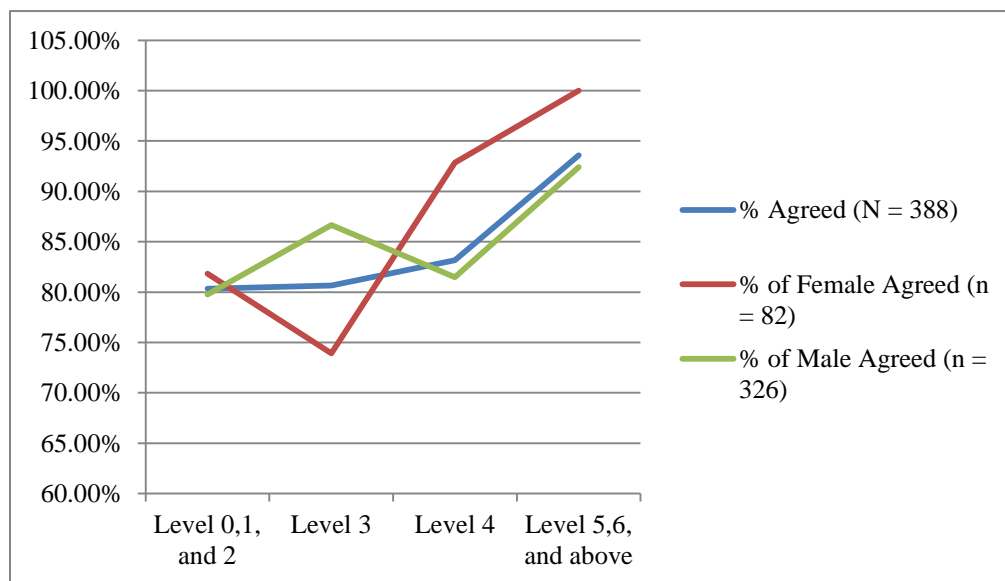


Figure 24. Percentage of female/male participants agreeing with the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level

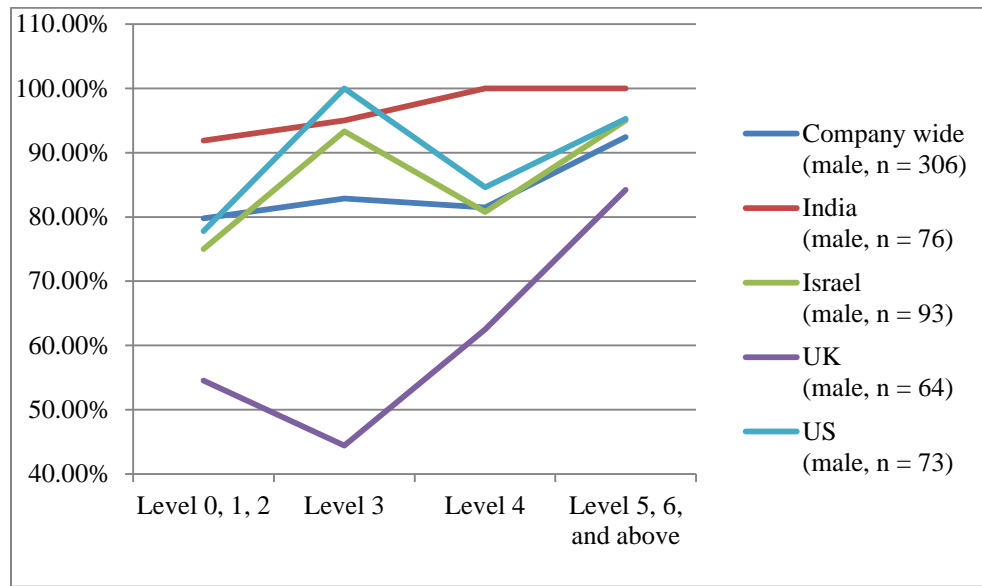


Figure 25. Percentage of male participants agreed with the 17 leadership statements across different seniority levels (NJFT), at company and region levels

For the United Kingdom (Table 34), extraversion ($r(70) = .320, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < 0.05$) and openness to experience ($r(70) = .272, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < 0.05$) were positively and significantly correlated to romance of leadership. Agreeableness and conscientiousness were correlated to romance of leadership but these correlations were not significant. Neuroticism was negatively correlated with romance of leadership but the correlation was not significant. About 12% ($R^2 = .1024$) and 7% ($R^2 = .0740$) of the variance in romance of leadership is uniquely accounted for by extraversion and openness to experience, respectively. This analysis confirms that the variance in romance of leadership that is accounted for by extraversion is not the same variance that is accounted for by maturity or gender, measured among the participants from the United Kingdom. Finally, for the United States (Table 35), extraversion ($r(82) = .382, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < 0.05$), agreeableness ($r(82) = .289, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < 0.05$), conscientiousness ($r(82) = .276, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < 0.05$) and openness to experience ($r(82) = .281, p \text{ (two-tailed)} < 0.05$)

0.05) were all positively and significantly correlated to romance of leadership.

Neuroticism was negatively correlated with romance of leadership but the correlation was not significant. About 15% ($R^2 = .1459$), 8% ($R^2 = .0835$), 7% ($R^2 = .0762$) and 8% ($R^2 = .0790$) of the variance in romance of leadership is uniquely accounted by extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience, respectively.

This finding confirmed, with one exception, that the variance in romance of leadership accounted for by extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience was not accounted for by maturity or gender. The significant correlation between neuroticism and romance of leadership, however, did become non-significance once controlled for maturity and gender. The inclusion of maturity and gender, the study found, significantly diminished the amount of variation in romance of leadership shared by neuroticism, measured among the participants from the United States.

In summary, this analysis showed that the majority of the partial correlations between personality trait factors and romance of leadership found at the region level remains statistically significant after controlling for age, seniority level, years of education, years of working, years of managing, and gender. The variance in romance of leadership accounted for by these personality trait factors, for the large part, is partially unique and is not a product of chance. Two exceptions should be noted:

One exception is the variance in romance of leadership accounted for by neuroticism among participants from the United States. After controlling for other factors, the negative correlation between neuroticism and romance of leadership became stronger but lost its significant. This finding suggests that, among the participants from the United States, the variance in romance of leadership accounted for by neuroticism is partially

unique. This unique portion of variance accounted for by neuroticism, however, is more likely a product of chance.

Another exception is correlation between openness to experience and romance of leadership among participants from the United Kingdom. When the effect of maturity and gender was removed, the positive correlation between openness to experience and romance of leadership is strengthened and becomes significant. This finding suggested that, among the participants from the United Kingdom, maturity and gender act as suppressor variables on the relationship between openness to experience and romance of leadership. Removing their effect restores the significant correlation relationship. The variance in romance of leadership accounted for by openness to experience is thus partially unique and is not a product of chance.

Analysis of the interactions between personality trait factors, seniority level, and home region. To investigate the possibility of an interaction effect between personality trait factors, maturity, and culture background, analysis was performed to evaluate the correlations between the product of these variables and romance of leadership (Tables AF142-AF146 and Tables AG147-AG151). The analysis results showed that the effect of these interactions was minimal as the correlations between them and romance of leadership were not significant at the 5% level ($\alpha = 0.05$). This finding suggested that the effects of personality, maturity, and cultural background to romance of leadership were mainly additive.

Summary of findings for Research Hypothesis 6. Hierarchical linear regression analysis was performed to generate a predictive model for romance of leadership based on independent factors from personality, maturity, and cultural

background. The resulting predictive models, based on home region and culture identity, were:

Romance of Leadership (based on home region)

$$\begin{aligned} &= 3.06 + .020 (\text{Extraversion}) + .010 (\text{Openness to Experience}) \\ &+ .103 (\text{Seniority Level (JFT)}) + .787 (\text{India vs UK region}) \\ &+ .402 (\text{Israel vs UK region}) + .491 (\text{US vs UK region}) \end{aligned}$$

Romance of Leadership (based on culture identity) =

$$\begin{aligned} &= 3.136 + .019 (\text{Extraversion}) + .010 (\text{Openness to Experience}) \\ &+ .107 (\text{Seniority Level (JFT)}) + .741 (\text{India vs UK culture}) \\ &+ .406 (\text{Israel vs UK culture}) + .454 (\text{US vs UK culture}) \end{aligned}$$

Analysis showed that approximately 30% of the variation in romance of leadership can be accounted for by the predictor variables in either model. Among the predictor variables, personality predictors (extraversion and openness to experience) can account for over 13% of this variation, cultural background (home region or culture identity) could account for over 13%, and maturity (seniority level within the organization) for over 2%.

Analysis of seniority level within the organization as the moderator variable between of the relationship between different personality trait factors and romance of leadership shows that the relationship between extraversion and romance of leadership is durable and not affected by seniority level. The relationships between the other personality trait factors and romance of leadership are, however, moderated by seniority level.

Table 31

Correlation Analysis of Personality Trait Factors and Romance of Leadership after Controlling for Maturity and Gender

Control Variables			RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
Age & Years of Working & Managing & Seniority Level (NJFT) & Gender	RLS	Correlation	1.000	.343	.143	-.135	.197	.222
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.005	.008	.000	.000
	Extraversion	Correlation	.343	1.000	.247	-.311	.301	.407
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Agreeableness	Correlation	.143	.247	1.000	-.532	.439	.129
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.005	.000	.	.000	.000	.011
	Neuroticism	Correlation	-.135	-.311	-.532	1.000	-.457	-.182
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	Conscientiousness	Correlation	.197	.301	.439	-.457	1.000	.234
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	Openness	Correlation	.222	.407	.129	-.182	.234	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.011	.000	.000	.

Note. $N = 388$. $df = 381$.

Table 32

Correlation Analysis of Personality Trait Factors and Romance of Leadership after Controlling for Maturity and Gender (India)

Control Variables			RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
Age & Years of Working & Years of Managing & Years of College Education & Seniority Level (JFT) & Gender	RLS	Correlation	1.000	.145	.138	-.054	.261	.089
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.169	.190	.610	.012	.401
	Extraversion	Correlation	.145	1.000	.380	-.256	.450	.346
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.169	.	.000	.014	.000	.001
	Agreeableness	Correlation	.138	.380	1.000	-.614	.575	.167
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.190	.000	.	.000	.000	.111
	Neuroticism	Correlation	-.054	-.256	-.614	1.000	-.464	-.262
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.610	.014	.000	.	.000	.012
	Conscientiousness	Correlation	.261	.450	.575	-.464	1.000	.239
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.000	.000	.000	.	.022
	Openness	Correlation	.089	.346	.167	-.262	.239	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.401	.001	.111	.012	.022	.

Note. $N = 98$. $df = 90$

Table 33

Correlation Analysis of Personality Trait Factors and Romance of Leadership after Controlling for Maturity and Gender (Israel)

Control Variables			RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
Age & Years of Working & Years of Managing & Years of College Education & Seniority Level (JFT) & Gender	RLS	Correlation	1.000	.238	-.046	.029	.047	.275
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.010	.626	.756	.615	.003
	Extraversion	Correlation	.238	1.000	.242	-.238	.226	.443
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.	.009	.010	.014	.000
	Agreeableness	Correlation	-.046	.242	1.000	-.554	.369	.013
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.626	.009	.	.000	.000	.889
	Neuroticism	Correlation	.029	-.238	-.554	1.000	-.438	-.133
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.756	.010	.000	.	.000	.153
	Conscientiousness	Correlation	.047	.226	.369	-.438	1.000	.225
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.615	.014	.000	.000	.	.015
	Openness	Correlation	.275	.443	.013	-.133	.225	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.000	.889	.153	.015	.

Note. $N = 123$. $df = 115$

Table 34

Correlation Analysis of Personality Trait Factors and Romance of Leadership after Controlling for Maturity and Gender (United Kingdom)

Control Variables			RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
Age & Years of Working & Years of Managing & Years of College Education & Seniority Level (JFT) & Gender	RLS	Correlation	1.000	.320	.205	-.140	.131	.272
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.007	.086	.243	.277	.022
	Extraversion	Correlation	.320	1.000	.142	-.513	.143	.403
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.	.239	.000	.235	.000
	Agreeableness	Correlation	.205	.142	1.000	-.435	.300	.060
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.086	.239	.	.000	.011	.619
	Neuroticism	Correlation	-.140	-.513	-.435	1.000	-.306	-.215
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.243	.000	.000	.	.010	.072
	Conscientiousness	Correlation	.131	.143	.300	-.306	1.000	.106
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.277	.235	.011	.010	.	.379
	Openness	Correlation	.272	.403	.060	-.215	.106	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.022	.000	.619	.072	.379	.

Note. $N = 77$. $df = 69$

Table 35

Correlation Analysis of Personality Trait Factors and Romance of Leadership after Controlling for Maturity and Gender (United States)

Control Variables			RLS	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
Age & Years of Working & Years of Managing & Years of College Education & Seniority Level (JFT) & Gender	RLS	Correlation	1.000	.382	.289	-.188	.276	.281
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.008	.086	.011	.010
	Extraversion	Correlation	.382	1.000	.218	-.149	.305	.358
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.046	.177	.005	.001
	Agreeableness	Correlation	.289	.218	1.000	-.537	.569	.279
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.046	.	.000	.000	.010
	Neuroticism	Correlation	-.188	-.149	-.537	1.000	-.632	-.093
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.086	.177	.000	.	.000	.402
	Conscientiousness	Correlation	.276	.305	.569	-.632	1.000	.267
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.005	.000	.000	.	.014
	Openness	Correlation	.281	.358	.279	-.093	.267	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.001	.010	.402	.014	.

Note. $N = 90$. $df = 82$

Partial correlation analysis of the relationship between personality trait factors and romance of leadership, controlling for maturity, gender, and cultural background, showed that in most cases the variances in romance of leadership that are accounted for by extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience are unique and are not products of chance. The variance in romance of leadership accounted for by neuroticism was, however, not unique.

Interaction analysis of extraversion and other independent variables, including seniority level and home region, showed that they were not significantly correlated to romance of leadership, suggesting the effect of personality, maturity, and cultural background to romance of leadership was mainly additive.

Chapter Summary

This chapter described the results of the quantitative study. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the survey participant responses. Some key findings included:

Romance of leadership was pervasive among the survey participants. Of the 388 responses, none disagreed with the 17 leadership statements presented. Even when interpreting neutral responses as implicit negative responses, a large majority of the responses remained positive.

Romance of leadership mean scores varies across different regional and cultural groups, even among participants from a same multinational company. In this study, India has the highest mean RLS score and the United Kingdom has the lowest mean RLS score. Israel and the United States shared comparable mean RLS scores.

Frequency distribution analysis of the sample showed that romance of leadership was relatively higher among more senior level participants within a region. This pattern replicated across all four regions. In each region, level 4 and above has the greatest proportion of participants agreeing with the 17 leadership statements. For the United Kingdom, a proportionally large number of participants across all seniority levels shared a much lower opinion about organizational leadership comparing to their counterparts from the other three regions.

All five personality trait factors were significantly correlated with romance of leadership at the company level. Extraversion, agreeableness, consciousness, and open to experience were positively correlated, while neuroticism was negatively correlated, to romance of leadership.

Of the five maturity factors, years of managing, years of college education, and seniority level (JFT), were positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership at the company level.

Mean RLS scores comparison showed a significant difference between participants from India and the United Kingdom. There was not a significant difference in mean RLS scores between participants from Israel and the United States.

When home region was treated as a control variable, the correlations between personality trait factors, or maturity factors, and romance of leadership varied. For the Indians, consciousness was strongly correlated with romance of leadership. For the Israeli group, extraversion and openness to experience correlated with romance of leadership. For the British, extraversion was correlated with romance of leadership. And

for the Americans, all five personality trait factors were correlated with romance of leadership.

When culture identity was treated as a control variable, there was no correlation between personality trait factors and romance of leadership for the Indians. For the Israeli, extraversion and openness to experience were correlated with romance of leadership. For the British, extraversion and neuroticism were correlated with romance of leadership. And for the Americans, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were correlated with romance of leadership.

Among the personality traits, extraversion was the most consistent predictor variable of romance of leadership at the company and regional/cultural levels. Following extraversion was openness to experience. The rest of the personality traits, i.e., agreeableness, neuroticism, and conscientiousness, were also significantly correlated with romance of leadership; however, these correlations were less as consistent when home region and culture identity were introduced as control variables.

Among the maturity factors, seniority level was the most consistent predictor variable of romance of leadership. Following seniority level was years of managing. Age and years of working did not have a significant correlation with romance of leadership at the company level. They were, however, significantly correlated with romance of leadership within some specific cultures and regions. Years of college education significantly correlated with romance of leadership at the company level, but this correlation disappeared when home region and culture identity were introduced as control variables.

Hierarchical linear regression analysis confirmed that a combination of personality trait factors (assertiveness, openness to experience), maturity factor (seniority level), and home region or culture identity could explain a large change in a person's tendency to romanticize leadership ($R = .555$ to $.537$). About 30% of the change in romance of leadership scores could be accounted for by these predictors.

Years of managing was excluded from the regression model probably due to a strong correlation with seniority level (JFT).

Table 36 summarizes the findings of the study focusing on the rejection or acceptance of null hypotheses. Partially rejecting a hypothesis means some of the underlying correlations governed by that hypothesis were found significantly correlated with romance of leadership and some were not. Hypotheses 3.3-3.6 could not be tested due to the strong homogeneity among participants within a regional group.

Table 36

Summary of the Findings from Testing of the Hypotheses

Research Hypothesis	Specific Hypothesis	Finding
1. Is there a correlation between romance of leadership and the Big-Five personality trait factors?	H1.1	Rejected H_0
	H1.2	Rejected H_0
	H1.3	Rejected H_0
	H1.4	Rejected H_0
	H1.5	Rejected H_0
2. Is there a correlation between romance of leadership and maturity?	H2.1	Accepted H_0
	H2.2	Accepted H_0
	H2.3	Rejected H_0
	H2.4	Rejected H_0
	H2.5	Rejected H_0

(table continues)

Research Hypothesis	Specific Hypothesis	Finding
3. What are the differences in cultural background with regard to romance of leadership?	H3.1	Rejected H_0
	H3.2	Rejected H_0
	H3.3	N/A
	H3.4	N/A
	H3.5	N/A
	H3.6	N/A
4. Is there a correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors and romance of leadership among members sharing a similar cultural background?	H4.1	Partially rejected H_0
	H4.2	Partially rejected H_0
	H4.3	Partially rejected H_0
	H4.4	Rejected H_0
	H4.5	Accepted H_0
	H4.6	Partially rejected H_0
	H4.7	Partially rejected H_0
	H4.8	Partially rejected H_0
5. Is there a correlation between maturity and romance of leadership among members sharing a similar cultural background?	H5.1	Partially rejected H_0
	H5.2	Partially rejected H_0
	H5.3	Partially rejected H_0
	H5.4	Partially rejected H_0
	H5.5	Rejected H_0
	H5.6	Partially rejected H_0
	H5.7	Partially rejected H_0
	H5.8	Partially rejected H_0
6. Is there a correlation between the Big-Five personality trait factors, maturity, and culture background with regard to romance of leadership?	H6.1	Rejected H_0

Chapter 5: Conclusion

Despite the misgivings, dissenting opinions, and questions about leadership and its traditional significance, it is easy to conclude that a rather intense commitment to and investment in the concept has developed over the years. Leadership appears to have been sanctified and to play a key role in our phenomenological construals of organized activities and their outcomes. This observation underlies what we refer to as the romanticized conception of leadership. (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987)

Chapter Overview

This chapter concludes this study by addressing its findings, contributions, implications, and limitations. First, the section summarizes key research findings of the study. Second, it contextualizes the contributions of the study within existing body of knowledge regarding romance of leadership. Third, it discusses the practical implications to leadership and organizations. Finally, it identifies key limitations and recommends opportunities for future studies. In the process of discussing these issues, the chapter will revisit the purpose and objectives of the study, and discuss the effective sizes of the significant correlations found.

Study Findings

This study answered the call for more investigation on the romance of leadership phenomenon. First, the study looked for indication of the existence of this phenomenon among employees within a multinational organization. Secondly, the study looked at the relationships between the personality, maturity, and cultural background of these employees and how they perceive senior leadership. Analysis of the data was done at multiple levels, including at the company and the regional or cultural level.

The specific findings from this study:

Finding 1: Romance of leadership is a pervasive phenomenon that consistently appears across all cultures, working ages, genders, and seniority levels within an organization. This study found a support for Meindl's principal argument that leadership occupies a prominent place in the mind of many followers in relation to organization's performance. Among the employees participated in the study, there was a clearly a shared belief that organization successes or failures are first and foremost the result of actions taken by organization leaders. This belief was measured based on the level of agreement with the 17 leadership statements subset of Meindl's Romance of Leadership Scale.

As described in Chapter 4, an overwhelming majority, approximately over 83%, of the 388 participants who completed the survey agreed with the proposition that organizational leader or leadership, more than any other factor, affect organization outcomes, for good or for bad. The rest, approximately 17% percent, stayed neutral and not one participant disagreed (Table O53). This finding confirms that romance of leadership is pervasive within the participating company.

Going beyond counting of the number of study participants agreeing with the 17 leadership statements, the distribution of these participants' responses across ages, seniority levels, and genders were analyzed. Frequency distribution analysis showed that a high percentage of the survey participants agreeing with the leadership statements can be found across all working ages, from the early 20s to the late 60s (Figure 7). Frequency distribution analysis also showed a consistent majority of the participants was in agreement with these leadership statements across different seniority levels within the

organization. For each level, the percentage of those in agreement with the leadership statements ranges between 80% and 93% (Figure 9).

Post-hoc analysis of the percentages of female and male participants agreeing with the leadership statements confirmed a strong majority among both groups, spreading across different seniority levels. For male participants, the percentage of those in agreement with the leadership statement ranges between 80% and 93%. For female participants, this percentage ranges between 74% and 100% (Figure 24).

A degree of restraint in the strength of the individual's endorsement of the 17 leadership statements, however, should be noted. Of the 388 responses, less than 1% scored a mean RLS value within the range of "Agree Strongly."

Finding 2: The magnitude of the human tendency to romanticize organizational leaders or leadership varies across regions, cultures, and seniority levels within the organization. While romance of leadership is pervasive throughout the company, the degree of romanticism varies significantly between regions, cultures, and seniority levels. For instance, this study found that participants from India regional offices have a relatively higher mean RLS score comparing with those from the other regions (Figure 10). Participants from the United Kingdom regional offices, on the other hand, have a relatively lower mean RLS score comparing with the scores from those of the other regions. A similar pattern was observed when the sample was split up into groups, separated by culture identity (Figure 11). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) confirmed that the difference in mean RLS scores between these regional or cultural groups was statistically significant (Table W103).

This study did not find a support for Adler's proposition that attribution to individual leaders is stronger among individualistic societies (Adler, 2002). In the study, India, a more collectivistic culture according to Hofstede's Individualism Index (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010), exhibited the highest degree of leadership romanticism among the four participating cultural groups.

From within each regional or cultural group, the percentages of the participants positively agreed with the 17 leadership statements varied among the seniority levels. In the case of the United Kingdom, for example, the difference in the percentage of employees romanticizing leadership in each level was significant, with higher percentages at the more senior levels (Figure 11). For instance, less than 50% of the employees in levels 2 and below agreed with the leadership statements comparing to over 80% of the employees in levels 5 and higher.

Overall, an upward trend was observed among the participants agreeing with the 17 statements, with the higher percentages go to the more senior levels in the organization. This upward trend was replicated among female and male participants (Figure 24), suggesting that females and males equally romanticize leadership. Proportionally, the data also indicated that a greater percentage of leadership romanticism is shared among female participants in higher seniority levels, comparing to male participants.

Findings 1 and 2 of this study show a similarity pattern with the cross-cultural endorsement of charismatic leadership, as reported the GLOBE study (House & Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program, 2002). Endorsement of charismatic or value-based leadership, as reported in the GLOBE study,

spans across all societal groups studied, although the strength of the endorsement varies among these societies. In an organizational context, this study found that romance of leadership, too, is a cross-cultural phenomenon, where the strength of its endorsement varies across national/cultural boundaries. Furthermore, the study found that the endorsement of romance of leadership spans across all working ages, genders, and seniority levels within the organization. Based on findings from this and other related studies, it is reasonable to suggest that this phenomenon, similar to charismatic leadership, is a globally endorsed phenomenon.

Finding 3: The personality of an individual is significantly correlated with his or her tendency to romanticize organizational leadership. Correlation analysis confirmed strong and significant relationships between all personality trait factors and romance of leadership. At the company level, all personality trait factors were significantly correlated with romance of leadership. Extraversion ($r = .356$), agreeableness ($r = .132$), conscientiousness ($r = .199$), and openness to experience ($r = .195$) were positively correlated with romance of leadership, while neuroticism ($r = -.124$) was negatively correlated (Table 12).

Partial correlational analysis performed to remove the effects of age, years of education, years of working, years of managing, gender, and home region on the correlation between personality trait factors and romance of leadership (Tables 33-36) showed that a relatively large portion of the variance in romance of leadership that is accounted for by personality trait factors is unique and not shared with factors of maturity or cultural background.

These findings corroborate those previously reported by Meindl (1990), Felfe (2005), and Schyns and Sanders (2007), and supports their arguments that personality traits of the followers do matter in leadership perception, especially when it comes to perception about the relationship between the performance of senior level leaders and organization outcomes. More specifically, the finding supports the theory that strong followers with personal qualities that are often associated with a leadership potential are more likely to romanticize the importance of leadership as a role within the organization (Meindl, 1990, Howell & Shamir, 2005). Strong followers are those who score high in extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and emotional stability (or low in neuroticism).

Finding 4: Extraversion is the strongest, most pervasive and durable personality trait predictor of romance of leadership. To evaluate the pervasiveness, durability, and strength of the relationship between personality trait factors and romance of leadership, culture identity, home region, gender, and seniority levels were introduced as control variables to measure their impact on this relationship. Participants were divided into groups based on each control variable and the correlation between the personality trait factors and romance of leadership were recomputed (Table 37). This study found extraversion is the strongest, and the most pervasive and durable, personality predictor for romance of leadership. According to the results documented in Table 37, extraversion was positively and significantly correlated across cultures and most regions (except for India), genders, and seniority levels within the organization. This finding corroborates with many previous findings regarding personality and leadership. In their meta-analysis of 222 correlations from 73 samples, Judge et al.

(2002) reported extraversion is positively and significant correlated with leadership across different leadership categories, including general leadership, leadership effectiveness, and leadership emergence.

In this study, the average magnitude of the correlation coefficient r between extraversion and romance of leadership was measured at .342, as computed by dividing the sum of all significant r values in Table 37 by the number of times the a significant correlation was found. This number reflects a relatively strong correlation comparing to those reported in personality and leadership studies.

The correlation between extraversion and romance of leadership is pervasive as it consistently showed up in 17 out of 20 different conditions evaluated (Table 37). In particular, after controlling for age, seniority level, years of education, years of working, years of managing, gender, and home region, the positive correlation between extraversion and romance of leadership remains very much significant and overall the strongest among the personality-related correlations.

This finding suggests that among most national cultures, there is a significant difference in the degree of leadership romanticism between extroverts and introverts. Extroverts are more likely to romanticize leadership than introverts. In India, and maybe other cultures that are not included in this study, the difference in the degree of leadership romanticism between extroverts and introverts is not significantly. As the result, leadership romanticism among participants from India did not significantly correlated with romance of leadership.

Finding 5: Openness to experience and conscientiousness are the second strongest personality predictors of romance of leadership. Similar to the findings of

Judge and colleagues (2002), openness to experience and conscientiousness were second strongest personality trait factors to correlate to leadership. The correlation between each personality trait factor and romance of leadership was found positive and significant in 13 and 10 out of 20 conditions evaluated, respectively (Table 37). The average correlation coefficient r values were .243 and .258, respectively (computed by dividing the sum of the significant coefficients for individual personality trait factors by the total number of significant correlation between that factor and romance of leadership).

Openness to experience is significantly correlated to romance of leadership among participants from Israel and the United States. Participants who are more willing to open up to new experiences are more likely to have a stronger belief in the importance of organizational leadership.

Conscientiousness is significantly correlated to romance of leadership among participants from India and the United States. Participants who approach organizational works with more focus and persevere are more likely to have a stronger belief in the importance of organizational leadership.

From a gender perspective, the correlations between these two personality trait factors and romance of leadership are significant among male participants. However, among female participants, openness to experience has a much stronger correlation to romance of leadership. There is no significant correlation between conscientiousness and romance of leadership among female participants (Table 37).

The correlations between conscientiousness and openness to experience with romance of leadership at the company level were replicated consistently among survey

participants from in the United States and among those occupying the middle seniority levels within the organization (Table 37).

These correlations remain significant after age, seniority level, years of education, years of working, years of managing, and gender were controlled for under partial correlation analyses at both company and region levels (Tables 32-36). For the correlation between openness to experience and romance of leadership among participants from Israel, $r = .275$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 , and among participants from the United States, $r = .287$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . For the correlation between conscientiousness and romance of leadership among participants from India, $r = .261$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 , and the United States, $r = .276$, p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . This finding confirms that most of the variance in romance of leadership that can be accounted for by these two personality trait factors, within the specific regions identified above, are unique and not overlapping with those accounted for by maturity and gender.

Finding 6: Agreeableness and neuroticism's predictive power regarding romance of leadership is limited to the United States region and among male participants. Although agreeableness and neuroticism were significant correlated with romance of leadership at the company level, these correlations did not rise to the level of significant consistently when controlled for by culture, region, gender, or seniority level. As shown in Table 37, agreeableness was positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership in 6 out of 19 conditions evaluated.

From a gender perspective, agreeableness and neuroticism were significantly correlated with romance of leadership among male participants. Agreeableness was

positively significant with romance of leadership while neuroticism was negatively significant.

From a regional perspective, both personality trait factors were significantly correlated with romance of leadership among the participants from the United States.

One possible explanation for the reduction in the strength and consistency in the correlations between these personality trait factors and romance of leadership is that personality-based correlations are more pronounced within individualistic societies than collectivistic societies. In this study, significant correlations between personality trait factors and romance of leadership were most often observed among participants from the United States, an individualistic society, and were least observed among those from India, a collectivistic society. In a study of the relationship between personality and national culture, Hofstede and McCrae found that extraversion was strongly and significantly correlated with individualism, $r = .64, p < 0.001$ (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004), suggesting leadership, and romance of leadership in particular, will likely to also significantly correlate with individualism. The finding in this study, where significant correlation with romance of leadership was found for all five personality traits among participants from the United States while none was found among those from India, suggests that the correlations between personality trait factors, at least for extraversion, and romance of leadership are more pronounced among national cultures that are more individualistic than collectivistic. In the case of the United Kingdom, another individualistic society, all personality trait factors were correlated to romance of leadership, although only extraversion was significantly correlated.

Table 37

Summary of the Pearson's Correlation Coefficients Computed at Company, Culture, Region, Gender, and Seniority Levels

Correlation Analysis Type	Controlled For	As Shown in Table	Size	df	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
a	—	16	388	387	.356**	.132**	-.124*	.199**	.195**
	India culture	17	103	102	0.121	0.093	0.051	0.183	0.015
	Israel culture	18	119	118	.226*	-0.113	0.056	0.045	.277**
	UK culture	19	79	78	.384**	0.176	-.227*	0.135	0.184
	US culture	20	87	86	.367**	.261*	.109	.273*	.236*
	Male	AA125	306	305	.332**	.116*	-.131*	.219**	.166**
	Female	AA126	82	81	.419**	.171	-0.13	0.095	.360**
	NJFT 2	Z121	122	121	.332**	.231*	-0.049	0.163	0.162
	NJFT 3	Z122	93	92	.387**	-0.017	0.207	.258**	.291**
	NJFT 4	Z123	95	94	.387**	0.198	-.266**	.282**	.246*
	NJFT 5	Z124	78	77	.326**	.175	-0.118	0.147	-0.025

(table continues)

Correlation Analysis Type	Controlled For	As Shown in Table	Size	df	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Conscientiousness	Openness
a	India region	21	98	97	0.139	0.14	-0.015	.260**	0.038
	Israel region	22	123	122	.234**	-0.102	0.061	0.034	.235**
	UK region	23	77	76	.396**	0.144	-0.195	0.15	0.151
	US region	24	90	89	.384**	.294**	-.229*	.292**	.349**
b	—	31	388	381	.343**	.143**	-.135**	.197**	.222**
	India region	32	98	90	0.145	0.138	-0.054	.261*	0.089
	Israel region	33	123	115	.238**	-0.046	0.029	0.047	.275**
	UK region	34	77	69	.320**	0.205	-0.14	0.131	.272*
	US region	35	90	82	.382**	.289**	-0.188	.276*	.281**

^a Simple Pearson's correlations. ^b Partial correlations, controlled for age, years of college education, years of working, years of managing, years, seniority level, and gender.

Note. * p (two-tailed) < .05. ** p (two-tailed) < .01.

Finding 7: Seniority level within the organization and years of managing are more consistent predictors of romance of leadership than age, years of working, and years of college education. This study found seniority level ($r = .172$) and years of managing ($r = .162$) were positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership. Furthermore, they were the most consistent maturity predictors of romance of leadership. The correlations between seniority level and romance of leadership was consistently expressed across cultures, regions, and genders, as it appeared in 10 out of 11 conditions evaluated, as summarized in Table 38. Similarly, the consistency of the correlation between years of managing was strong, appearing in 9 out of 11 conditions evaluated.

Age, years of working, and years of college education were not correlated to romance of leadership at the company level (Table 38). The correlation between years of college education and romance of leadership was only significant among male participants, after gender was controlled for. This correlation, however, was not significant after region or culture was controlled for. The correlations between romance of leadership and each maturity factor age and years of working became stronger and significant in many cases after region or culture was controlled for. This finding suggests that age and years of working, unlike years of managing and seniority level within the organization, are regional predictors of romance of leadership. Finding 9 will provide more elaboration on the relationship between these two variables and romance of leadership.

Finding 8: Those who are more seniors within the organization are more likely to have greater faith in the significance of organizational leadership. The study found a greater percentage of senior employees romanticizing leadership. For instance, across all regions and cultures, the study found that above 80% of the senior level participants showed

agreement with the 17 leadership statements. Smaller percentages were found among more junior level participants within each region or culture.

This finding suggests that a long and successful working career in organization does strengthen a person's faith in leadership. Specifically, a person who has spent more time as a manager, responsible for the work of others in the organization, is probably more likely to perceive organizational leadership as a critical factor in organization successes as leading others is one critical leadership function. In addition, a person who is working in a position of greater authority and responsibility, as measured by seniority level in this study, is more likely to romanticize leadership. This finding contradicts a more popular belief, as reviewed in Chapter 2, that romance of leadership will decrease over time as the individual accumulated more life experience.

This finding provides a support for the theory that romance of leadership is in part a function of self-projection (Howell & Shamir, 2005, Padilla et al., 2007). That is people with high career attainment, reflecting a strong personal ambition, are more likely to perceive leadership as a critical factor, if not the most critical factor, for organization successes, as they see themselves as leaders in the organization. High career attainment, in this context, is expressed as achieving greater level of responsibility and authority within the organization.

Finding 9: Age and years of working are region or culture level predictors of romance of leadership. This study found that age and years of working did not significantly correlate to romance of leadership at the company level. However, analysis at region level found positive and significant relationships between these two maturity factors and romance of leadership in some regions and cultures. For instance, age was positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership among participants from India, Israel, and the United

States. Years of working, on the other hand, was positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership among participants from India and Israel. The relationship between these factors and romance of leadership exists only within the context of a particular region or culture.

This finding shines some light to the conflicting reports from Meindl (1990), Schilling (2007), and Felfe (2005) regarding the relationship between age and romance of leadership. According to Meindl, age is positively and significantly correlated with romance of leadership, enabling him to conclude that the leadership concept is particularly prominent in the thought process among more mature people (Meindl, 1990). Although not explicitly stated, Meindl's position as faculty of State University of New York at Buffalo suggested his sample of working adults might have come from a population within the United States. Felfe (2005) reported that age was not significantly correlated with romance of leadership based on his analysis of three set of samples of students with working experience from different German universities. The correlation between age and romance of leadership, this study found, is moderated by regional or cultural differences. This study did not find support for Schilling (2007) finding that age is negatively correlated with romance of leadership.

Age and years of working, as the finding in this study suggested, are not effective predictors of romance of leadership in studies that treat participants from different cultures as a common sample. Maturity factors that are based on a person's experience in leadership authority and responsibility within organization, such as years of managing and seniority level within the organization, are much better predictors of romance of leadership.

Table 38

Summary of the Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficients Computed at Company, Culture, Region, and Gender Levels

Grouped by	Size	Age	Years of Working	Years of Managing	Years of College Education	Seniority Level(JFT)
Company	388	.016	0.016	.162**	.189**	.172**
India culture	103	.261**	.281**	.229*	0.08	.302**
Israel culture	119	.206**	.225*	.362**	0.044	.191*
UK culture	79	0.086	0.129	.375**	0.007	.487**
US culture	87	.269**	.153	0.115	0.103	.248**
Male	306	-0.004	-0.007	.127*	.199**	.154**
Female	82	.205	0.187	.348**	0.22	.272*
India region	98	.305**	.338*	.252*	0.11	.340*
Israel region	123	.212*	.218*	.334**	0.067	.215*
UK region	77	0.13	0.167	.355**	0.12	.412**
US region	90	.231*	0.11	0.132	0.032	0.18

Note. * p (two-tailed) < .05. ** p (two-tailed) < .01.

Finding 10: Gender is a strong moderator for the relationships between romance of leadership and personality and maturity/experience. The study did not find any correlation between gender and romance of leadership as similarly reported by Meindl (1990). However, this study did find that gender was a strong moderator for the relationships between personality trait factors and romance of leadership (Table 37). For agreeableness, neuroticism, and conscientiousness, gender acted as an inhibitor preventing their relationships with romance of leadership among female participants to reach a significant level. For extraversion and openness to experience, gender magnified the strength of their relationships with romance of leadership among female participants. The relationships between personality trait factors and romance of leadership among male participants replicated what were found at the company level.

Overall, the study found extraversion and openness to experience to be consistent personality predictor variables of romance of leadership across both genders. Comparing between the two genders, the study found both extraversion and openness to experience have a stronger predictive power among female participants.

Gender is also a strong moderator for the relationship between maturity factors and romance of leadership for years of education, years of managing, and seniority level (Table 38). In the case of years of managing and seniority level within the organization, gender magnified their relationships with romance of leadership among female participants. Years of college education only correlated to romance of leadership among male participants. Age and years of working did not correlate with romance of leadership.

Finding 11: A combination of personality, maturity, and cultural background can account for up to 30% of the variance in romance of leadership, a large effect size. Multiple regression analysis showed that factors of personality, maturity, and cultural background can be combined to form a strong predicting model of romance of leadership. The predictive models generated from this study, separated by region and culture, were:

Romance of Leadership (based on home region)

$$= 3.06 + .020 (\text{Extraversion}) + .010 (\text{Openness to Experience}) \\ + .103 (\text{Seniority Level (JFT)}) + .787 (\text{India vs UK region}) \\ + .402 (\text{Israel vs UK region}) + .491 (\text{US vs UK region})$$

Romance of Leadership (based on culture identity) =

$$= 3.136 + .019 (\text{Extraversion}) + .010 (\text{Openness to Experience}) \\ + .107 (\text{Seniority Level (JFT)}) + .741 (\text{India vs UK culture}) \\ + .406 (\text{Israel vs UK culture}) + .454 (\text{US vs UK culture})$$

The combination of these three factors, personality, cultural background, and personal experience, can explain for approximately 30% of the change in followers' romance of leadership. This study found the effect size of the relationship between the combination of these predictors and romance of leadership to be large ($R = .537$ to $.555$).

Post hoc exploration of personality, national culture or home region and seniority level within the organization suggested that there are multiple layers of moderation regarding romance of leadership. Human nature, operationalized by personality trait factors, preconditions one's perception of the importance of senior leadership in

organizations. The relationship between personality trait factors and romance of leadership is documented in Table 37.

Beyond human nature, cultural background, operationalized by home region and culture identity, strongly moderate the degree of leadership romanticism, resulted in significant differences in mean RLS scores among regional or cultural groups.

Within each regional or cultural group, personal experience or maturity, as operationalized by years of managing and seniority level within the organization, governed the degree of faith in leadership. This study found a greater percentage of the participants romanticizing leadership among upper seniority levels.

Finding 12: A person's tendency to romanticize leadership is deeply rooted in human nature and culture, and might not be easily changeable by increased maturity or life experience within the organization. The study found that personality and cultural background are better predictors of romance of leadership than maturity or experience. While seniority level within an organization was a significant predictor of the variation in romance of leadership, it accounted for less than 3% of this variance. Extraversion, in combined with openness to experience, according to the models, account for up to 13% of the variance in romance of leadership. Similarly, cultural background could account for another 13% of this variance. This finding suggests that the effect of a having career with increasing leadership responsibility within organizations will affect a person's perception of leadership. However, this effect is small comparing to the effects of person's personality and culture where he or she is being raised. In other words, a person's tendency to romanticize leadership is deeply rooted in human nature and culture,

and might not be easily changeable with increasing age or personal experience in organization.

Practical Significance of Findings

According to Ellis (2010), an effect size refers to the magnitude of a significant finding as it would be found in the population. In other words, an effect size addresses how meaningful or relevant a statistically finding is in the real world. Small or large effects that are statistically significant can be substantive if they are shown to be meaningful in practice.

There are several ways to contextualize the practical significance, or substance, of the statistical findings of this study (Ellis, 2010): First, the effect sizes of key findings are substantive when they are comparable to those substantive findings in prior studies. Second, the impact, or potential impact, of the resulting outcomes is substantive. Third, small effects can be accumulated into larger effects on the outcomes. Fourth, understanding of the effects can improve the body of knowledge in leadership studies. The findings in this study are considered substantive as measured by these four criteria.

Effect sizes in this study are comparable with those found in previous studies.

In this study, many of the correlation coefficients summarized in Tables 33 and 34 have values of approximately .30, suggesting that the magnitude of these correlations are of medium size, based on Cohen's (1992) general guideline for estimating effect sizes. Comparison to the effect sizes found of prior studies in related fields confirms that these effects should be considered very substantive in practice.

The coefficients of the company level correlations were compared against those reported in prior studies focusing on personality to leadership (Table 39). For this

comparison, both Pearson and Spearman's coefficients were computed. The data captured in Table 39 shows that overall the correlation coefficients found in this study fall within the range of values reported as substantive findings in past studies.

Table 39

Comparison of Pearson's Correlation Coefficients of the Relationships between Personality Trait Factors and Leadership

	This study		Schyns & Sanders (2007)	Felfe (2005)	Judge et al. (2002) (average values of 73 samples)				
	<i>r</i>	ρ	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	ρ				
					GL	LEM	LEF	GL (business setting)	GL (student setting)
E	.36	.36	.31	.15	.31	.33	.24	.25	.40
A	.13	.14	.	.	.08	.02	.21	-.04	.18
N	-.12	-.12	.32	-.21	-.24	-.24	-.22	-.15	-.27
C	.20	.21	.	.29	.28	.33	.16	.05	.36
O	.20	.18	.	.	.24	.24	.24	.23	.28

Note. E = Extraversion, A = Agreeableness, N = Neuroticism, C = Conscientiousness, O = Openness to experience, GL = General Leadership, LEM = Leadership emergence, LEF = Leadership effectiveness. *r* = Pearson *r*. ρ = Spearman ρ .

According to Meyer and colleagues (2001), except under a very few special conditions, effect sizes of uncorrected univariate correlations reported among major findings in psychological tests, medical tests, and in every-day life studies seldom exceed .30, even among those widely considered substantive. Some examples cited in their meta-analysis study included the relationship between aspirin and the risk of dying from a heart attack ($r = .02$), the relationship between chemotherapy and breast cancer survival ($r = .03$), the relationship between antihistamines and reduction of sneezes and runny nose ($r = .11$), and employment interviews and prediction of job success ($r = 0.2$).

From their findings, Meyer and colleagues (2001) concluded that (some words were italicized for emphasis):

...it seems that psychologists studying highly complex human behavior should be rather *satisfied* when they can identify replicated univariate correlations among independently measured constructs that are of the magnitude observed for antihistamine effectiveness, ($r = .11, \dots$). Furthermore, it appears that psychologists generally should be *pleased* when they can attain replicated univariate correlations among independently measured constructs that approximate the magnitude seen for gender and weight ($r = .26, \dots$), elevation above the sea level and daily temperature ($r = .34, \dots$). Finally, psychologists probably should *rejoice* when they find replicated evidence that uncorrected univariate correlations are of the same magnitude as those observed for gender and arm strength ($r = .55, \dots$), or for latitude and daily temperature ($r = .60, \dots$)... (p. 134)

A similar argument for considering a coefficient value of .30, a substantive finding in personality-related research, was presented by Roberts, Kuncel, Shiner, Caspi, and Goldberg (2007). Their study found that, at Pearson's correlation coefficient r values between .14 to .32, personality trait factors as variables for predicting important life outcomes, such as mortality, divorce, and occupational attainment, perform equally well or better than standard predictor variables such as cognitive ability (Roberts et al., 2007). Based on these comparisons, it is reasonable to assume the effect sizes of the correlations found in this study to be of practical significance.

Organizational outcomes associated with the effect are or can be significant.

For all practical purposes, leadership excellence and organization successes have become synonyms in people's implicit theory of organization. There are strong indications that romance of leadership affects our collective assessment of leaders' effectiveness. History has repeatedly shown that an unwarranted belief in organization leadership under some circumstances, such as when facing an impending crisis, can facilitate in the emergence of destructive leaders. Some collective actions that are attributable to the organization's

inability to make objective assessment of its leaders' performance include: (a) the unwarranted blame and subsequent removal of competent leaders (Pfeffer, 2009); (b) the subsequent hiring of less competent leaders who are more skilled at impression management (Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998; Wiersema, 2002); and (c) the unquestioned commitment to destructive organizational leadership (McLean & Elkind, 2004). High leadership romanticism in organization can lead to devastating consequences including the demise of the organization as in the case of the Enron Corporation, as discussed in Chapter 1.

Being able to correctly assess the performance of organization leaders has always been an important issue in organization, in words if not in deeds. Today it is almost a universal practice that organization leaders are to be evaluated on a regular basis through a 360 degree feedback program by their supervisors, peers, and followers. In addition, an organization's bylaws often demand its board of directors take on the responsibility of conducting a regular assessment of the performance of the organization's chief executive. While collective evaluation of a leader's performance does help to mitigate individual biases in the rating, this process gives little protection against collective bias such as romance of leadership.

The importance of objective ratings of organization leaders suggested romance of leadership should be taken seriously. As a result, it is reasonable to expect that statistically significant correlations found in this study to be treated as having practical significance.

Related effects can be accumulative to generate bigger effects on outcomes.

As a collective bias, romance of leadership can potentially have a cumulative effect on

critical outcomes such as leadership assessments. This study has shown the widespread of the phenomenon among the study participants. Linkage between a collective tendency to romanticize leadership and a higher risk of over-attributing or over-blaming of leadership for organizational outcomes have been cited in studies and reports discussed throughout this dissertation.

Furthermore, analysis of research hypothesis 6 in Chapter 4 shows that the combination of a few key personality trait factors (extraversion and openness to experience), maturity (seniority level within the organization), and cultural background (home region or culture identity) could predict a substantial percentage, about 30%, of the variation in romance of leadership, $R = .546$ (the average of .537 and .555), p (two-tailed) < 0.05 . This finding confirmed the significant relationship between these individual factors and romance of leadership.

Table 40 illustrates the practical significance of the accumulated correlational effect of $R = .546$ using the binomial effect size display (BESD) technique, developed by Rosenthal and Rubin (1982). For a regression model with $R = .546$, the table describes the change in the predicted outcome when a (hypothetical) group of employees of relatively high tendency to romanticism leadership is compared to another (hypothetical) group of employees of relatively low romance of leadership tendency.

From the figure, approximately 77% of the employees will exhibit high mean RLS scores in a High Tendency group, comparing to only 22% will exhibit high mean RLS scores in Low Tendency group. An example of a High Tendency group would be a group of senior level Indian employees with strong extraversion and openness to experience personalities. An example of a Low Tendency group would be a group of

junior level employees from the United Kingdom with low extraversion and openness to experience personalities. The difference in the percentage of people romanticizing leadership between these two groups of employees is 54.6, a significant difference (Randolph & Edmondson, 2005).

This study enhances the body of knowledge in leadership research, specifically romance of leadership research in two areas: (a) it quantifies the strength, pervasiveness, and durable of romance of leadership in global, multinational organizations, and (b) it ensures consistent measurements of the relationships between personality trait factors and romance of leadership, and comparisons of their differences across four different cultures and different levels of maturity.

Table 40

The Binomial Effect Size Display of $r = .546$

Measure	Variable (in percent)		Total
Group Characteristics and Romance of Leadership ($r = .546$)	High RLS	Low RLS	
High Tendency Group	77.3	22.7	100
Low Tendency Group	22.7	77.3	100
Total	100	100	200

Understanding the effects will improve the body of knowledge in leadership studies. Among its findings, this study found romance of leadership to be a pervasive and durable phenomenon; Extraversion and openness to experience are the strongest and most consistent personality predictors of romance of leadership; Years of managing and the seniority level within organizations can also the strongest and most consistent maturity predictors of romance of leadership; Age and years of working were significant

maturity predictors of romance of leadership at the regional level. These and other findings will improve our understanding of this leadership phenomenon.

Another contribution our current understanding of romance of leadership is in the design of the study. Comparing to past studies, this study was designed to give higher quality results in a cross-cultural setting. First, the study used a single multinational company ensured a greater level of consistency across different cultural groups being evaluated. It is assumed that within such an organization, information about the organization leadership and performance is more likely to be defused and shared more or less equally among employees within the organization. Second, the use of the latest version of the Romance of Leadership scale that has been recently refined for better validity and cross culture assessment helped to enhance the quality of the findings. A study by Schyns and colleagues (2007) on the structure of the original 32-item scale found that it measures three distinct factors. This study utilizes only the 17-item core factor that is most reflective of the spirit of Meindl's romance of leadership. Third, this study relied on the responses from actual working professionals from across four participating countries rather than from college students to ensure the usefulness of the findings in a work setting. Past studies confirmed that responses from college students on questionnaires regarding personality and leadership gave different results comparing to those from working professionals (Judge et al., 2002). Finally, the use of a multinational company for this study further ensures the value of the findings in the context of organizational leadership. Leading multinational organizations poses unique challenges to leaders today, especially in regard to inspiring and motivating employees across different cultures. Understanding of the challenges of leading across cultures is an

imperative for competing in today's economy. There is no known study of romance of leadership to date done within in the context of a multinational organization.

Implications for Leadership and Organizational Improvements

Improving organization leaders and leadership assessment practices. As described in Chapter 1, today's assessment of organization leaders often relies on the combined ratings by followers, peers and supervisors. Rating objectivity is maintained through the use of multiple raters. Many times the raters remain anonymous in the feedback process. Research studies have warned of the possibility of systemic bias in the responses, where the romance of leadership phenomenon is one contributing factor. This study found supports for this concern. Romance of leadership is pervasive and durable in the company participated in the study. The level of leadership romanticism varies across personality, culture, gender and maturity. As the result, objective assessment of organization leaders or leadership need to take into account the effect of romance of leadership, as contributed by these antecedent factors measured. Incorporating the predictive model generated from this study into the leadership evaluation process can help enhancing the overall objectivity of the assessment of organizational leadership rating.

Improving the management of leadership expectations and blaming in organizations. While this study stopped short of including participants' assessment of senior leadership at the participating company, some insights into the human tendency to blame leader for organizational failure could be found in the survey responses collected. For instance, regarding the leadership perception statement "When a company is doing poorly, the first place one should look to is its leaders," the majority of the survey

responses were in agreement (Table R80). Of the 388 responses, 83% agreed (in this analysis, any mean RLS score greater than 4.49 was considered “Agreed”). This percentage increased to 92% if neutral responses were treated as implicit agreements. This high percentage of agreement confirmed a universal belief throughout this company that senior leadership, more than any other factor, should be made liable for organizational failures.

Furthermore, reviewing the responses to leadership statement 9 “Even in a bad economy, a good leader can prevent a company from doing poorly” (Table R77) showed that 73% participants agreed with this statement. Treating neutral responses to this question as implicit agreements give a result of 83% agreed, confirming a near universal expectation that senior leadership has the capability to prevent poor company performance, even when the negative effect of external factors is overwhelming. Organizational failures, for whatever reasons, are attributed to lack of organizational leadership capability, in the mind of most employees. This finding supports what Meindl, Hackman and other leadership theorists suggested that leadership attribution has become a sort of fundamental attribution error (Meindl, 1990, Hackman, 2009).

Moderating leadership attribution and expectation among the employees will prevent the development of an attitude that is hyper-romanticized within the organization. Employees of hyper-romanticized organizations tend to reflexively oscillate between idolizing and condemning their organization leaders depending on near-term performance outcomes of their organizations which might not have much to do with the actions of their leaders.

Improving leadership effectiveness in inspiring and motivating employees.

As described in Chapter 1, in the age of globalization, hyper-competition and creative destruction, organizational effectiveness demands a collective commitment from organization members. The ability to inspire and motivate people for collective actions is the central challenge, and the ultimate hallmark, of leadership. Probably nowhere does this challenge is as great as in a multinational organization where effective leadership requires the ability to inspire and motivate people across different cultures.

Awareness of employees' implicit expectation of leadership is crucial to improve the leader's ability to lead. This study found that although romance of leadership is a universal phenomenon within a multinational organization, its strength is controlled by factors such as personality, culture, region, gender, and seniority level within the organization. To be effective, then organization leaders need to be able to adjust their messages or the means of communication to take into account the level of faith in leadership among their target audiences. For instance, among more junior British employees of the participating organization, a larger communication effort should be put into the persuasion campaign to ensure maximum effect due to a lower level of leadership romanticism. Less effort is expected to gain a similar effect when leaders communicate with their India employees. This study suggests adjustment to a leader's persuasion campaign can be formulated as a function of the level of leadership romanticism among those audiences to be inspired and motivated.

Improving organizational sense making, mental model and learning.

Romance of leadership, as an enduring and universal human tendency, operates at a level below human and organization consciousness. Researchers have long raised concerns

about its potential effect in skewing people's judgment about leaders and leadership performance. Findings from this study confirmed a strong relationship between the personality, cultural background, and maturity of employees and their leadership perceptions. These findings can be incorporated into employee empowerment program for the purpose of enhancing thinking about leadership and organizations. Sharing findings from this follower-centered study, in combination with those of leader-centered studies, can help facilitate new dialogs and inquiries about the nature, role and effect of leadership in organization. Employees can learn to move away from a simple, and often unrealistic, view of organizational leadership toward a more realistic, and complex, systemic view that reflects the dynamic reality of modern organizations. Organization's performance can be improved when its employees learn to develop personal and collective capabilities to perceive, cope and reason critically about organizational missions, leadership, successes and failures, and challenges in all of their complexity.

Contributions to the Study of Leadership

This study supports the proposition that leadership can never be complete without consideration for the roles and effects of followership. Leadership is never only about the behaviors of a leader at the top over a mass of followers. It is about an outcome of the complex and unfolding relationship between the leader, the followers, their interactions, the situations and the environment. Influencing the individual decisions in the leadership process includes personal factors such as personality, cultural background, and working experience. To enhance the understanding of leadership, this study sought the opinions of the followers within a multinational organization.

Specifically, this study looks at one aspect of followership: the collective disposition among followers to romanticizing leadership in organizations. This disposition can affect the followers' interpretations of organizational situations, perceptions of the leader's performance, and decisions regarding their relationships with the leader. In particular, this study seeks to understand the pervasiveness and endurance of this disposition, as operationalized through its relationship with factors such as personality, cultural background, and working experience.

Romance of leadership, the study confirmed, is a pervasive and durable phenomenon that is deeply rooted in personality traits, national cultures, genders, and experience within in organizations. The majority of the employees participated in this study carry with them an implicit belief about the importance of leadership in organization. Leadership, as the responses indicated, is believed to be the central factor behind organizational success or failure. The strength of this belief, as a human disposition, is specific to each employee, driven by a combination of personality, culture, gender, and experience within the organization, and might not be easily changeable. The relationships between these personal factors and romance of leadership found in this study have been documented as findings earlier in this Chapter. Future leadership studies that rely on opinions or feedbacks from followers should explore and take into account the nature and effects of this phenomenon on their leadership assessments.

Does Organizational Leadership Matter?

Revisiting the seemingly elusive fundamental leadership question “does leadership matter?” discussed in Chapter 1, this study found an answer from the collective voice of the participating professionals: Yes, leadership does matter in

organization. It matters because people, in varying degrees, across different personality traits, national cultures, working ages, genders, seniority levels within the organization, do still believe that it matters. Although the strength of their belief, as expressed in the degree of their endorsements of the 17 leadership statements of the survey, is restrained, the collective message is still clear: that senior level leaders should be given credit and held accountable for the performance of their organizations, and that the organization's leadership selection process should be handled with the utmost care, for they are the most influencing factor in the success and failure of their organizations.

Study Limitations

There are some limitations in this study partially due to the challenge of getting approval from the participating company and then getting enough volunteers to participate in the study. The readers should pay attention the potential impact of these limitations on the findings reported. Specific limitations include:

Limitation 1: Only a single multinational company was used in this study.

The research findings in this study came from a single sample from within a single multinational company. Although some of the findings corroborate with those of prior studies, any generalization beyond this single participating organization should be viewed with caution. Having additional multinational organizations participating in the study will help to validate the generality of the findings. The most important litmus test for a research finding, after all, is the ability to replicate it in similar settings.

Limitation 2: Sample selection method was on opportunistic rather than random selection. Access to survey participants during data collection phase in this study depends on the approval of the executives from each participating regions.

Although many of the executives the investigator contacted did approve, some did not. Furthermore, among the executives supported this study, some asked that the invitations to be sent to specific departments reporting to them. In the end, only employees belonging to the divisions and departments where all the necessary approvals were received were invited to take the survey. As the result, there is greater chance that the responses to the survey did not fully reflect the opinions of all employees within the participating company.

Limitation 3: The size of the sample being analyzed was smaller than desired.

As discussed in Chapter 4, the actual sample size (actual $N = 388$) used in this study did not meet the estimated sample size (projected $N = 492$) that would be required based on prospective power analysis in Chapter 3. When the sample was further divided into subgroups for analysis, the size of each subgroup is again smaller than what was originally anticipated. With a smaller sample size collected, the risk of committing a type 2 Error in the analysis between the subgroups is greater than the level desired. In the case where the size of the subgroups (n) analyzed became too small, extra caution should be used when reviewing the results. As part of each finding discussed, this investigator has made effort to document size of the subgroups analyzed.

Research Recommendations

This study can be further extended in the following ways:

Extension 1: Surveying additional multinational companies on romance of leadership. To overcome limitation 1 described above, being able to conduct another round of data collection from within the same participating company will help to strengthen the research findings. Being able to conduct the same study across multiple

companies will help the investigator to evaluate the generality of these findings. In addition, having companies from different industries participate in such a study will help to reduce the skewing effects that are unique to the particular industry where the study was done.

Extension 2: Expanding the current study to other regional offices.

Deploying the same survey to other regional offices within this company or to multinational companies with regional offices elsewhere will help to enhance the repeatability and generality of the findings. Research results from this study suggested that romance of leadership and its correlation with personality trait factors and maturity vary in strength among different national cultures and home regions. Extending the study across other regions and cultures should allow better understanding of the impact of cultural and regional factors on romance of leadership and its antecedents.

Extension 3: Enhancing the survey to include assessment of leadership in participating organizations. This study focuses on antecedents to romance of leadership rather than about its impact on leadership judgment. As the result, the study did not explore the relationship between followers' attitudes toward leadership and their ratings of actual leaders in the participating organization. For instance, the relationship between romance of leadership and perception of charismatic leadership can be measured by asking survey participants to assess the style or quality of senior leadership or leader in their organizations. Adding leadership ratings to the study will allow evaluation of the correlation between leadership perception and leadership assessment among organization employees.

Extension 4: Expanding the survey to include questions about how participants perceive the situations within their organization. Some leadership theorists, including Meindl (1995), have suggested that romance of leadership is strongly influenced by situational factors. Asking participants how they feel about themselves and the company will allow for the effect of situational factors on these participants' romance of leadership ratings. Situational factors can be included into the analysis as moderating factors of the relationship between personality, maturity, cultural background, and romance of leadership. In this study, with up to 30% of the variance in romance of leadership accounted for by the predictor variables, 70% of the variance remains unaccounted for by situational and other factors.

Extension 5: Expanding our understanding of the collected data through followed up qualitative analysis of survey participants. Like most quantitative studies, our understanding of the collected data can be enhanced with followed up qualitative analyses. Correlation analysis can point to significant relationships between variables, but does not address why they are related. Qualitative analysis provides a means to inquire into the complexities that underlie these causation relationships. For an example, this study finds that junior employees from the United Kingdom disproportionately disagreed with the 17 leadership statements in the survey, comparing to their peers from the other three regions and to those that are more senior in their own region. Why? Being able to conduct a follow up first-person interview will enable a better understanding of some of the reasons behind the numerical disagreements. For another example, while the majority of the participants in this study endorsed the 17 leadership statements, less than 1% strongly agreed. This restraint from a full

endorsement could reflect a degree of reservation about the influence of senior level leadership within the organization. A follow up interview with a selected number of participants could help clarify the nature of the restraint.

Extension 6: Exploring the effect of cultural individualism and collectivism on the relationship between personality trait factors and romance of leadership.

This study confirmed that national culture moderates the correlational relationships between personality trait and romance of leadership. Based on the work of Hofstede and McCrae (2004), this study suggested that cultural factors such as individualism and collectivism do affect the nature of the relationship between personality trait factors and romance of leadership. For instance, in a previous section of this chapter, the investigator proposed that the correlations between personality trait factors and romance of leadership are more likely to be significant among national cultures that are more individualistic, such as the United States, and less likely to be significant among national cultures that are more collectivistic, such as India. Collection of additional data from different individualistic and collectivistic cultures can help confirm or disconfirm this proposal.

Extension 7: Comparing leadership perceptions between people in similar cultures working in different regions to people working within the same home region who identify themselves with different cultures. This study attempted unsuccessfully in attracting enough participants whose national culture they identified with was different than the majority culture of the home region where they collected their paychecks. As a result, the study was not able to address hypotheses 3.3-3.6 original posed in the study. Being able to study these participants would allow a better understanding of the influence of culture identity and locality on participants, such as

whether or not their leadership perceptions, on the average, are similar to either those sharing the same home region or with those sharing a common cultural identity.

Extension 8: Exploring further the commonalities and differences in romance of leadership among women and men in organizations. This study has begun to explore the romance of leadership among women in organizations. The study found that women are equally as men in romanticizing leadership. Furthermore, similar to men, the study found that extraversion is the strongest and most consistent personality predictor of romance of leadership among women. Extraversion exhibits stronger predictive power among women than men. While these commonalities reflect the influence of personality and culture on romance of leadership, the use of a single company in this study prevents a verification of whether they reflect a societal, an industry sectorial, or an organizational norm? Presently there is no known study analyzing the commonalities or differences in the romance of leadership between men and women.

Extension 9: Contextualizing the relationship between of romance of leadership and the emergence of transformational and despotic leaders in organizations and societies. Assuming that romance of leadership is a pervasive human tendency that can be accounted for but cannot be eliminated, the next logical question should be raised is how much romanticism in an organization is considered normal and how much is considered significantly different from normal. To establish the baseline level of normality for romance of leadership, meta-analysis can be performed across different studies on romance of leadership. Measuring of employees' attitude toward

leadership during, or shortly after, the emergence of a new leader will allow the formulation of thresholds for predicting future leadership emergence.

Chapter Summary

This study contributes to a better understanding of the romance of leadership within a multinational company setting and the relationship between it and key antecedent factors, including personality, gender, cultural background, and maturity. From the analysis of a sample of 388 employees of a single multinational company with offices in India, Israel, the United Kingdom, and the United States, the study confirmed, clarified and enhanced previous findings on the romance of leadership phenomenon.

First and foremost, this study found a support for Meindl's main thesis regarding human's enduring tendency to romanticize organizational leaders and leadership. Within the context of a multinational organization, the study found that romance of leadership is indeed a pervasive and a durable phenomenon spanning all cultures, working ages, genders and seniority levels within the organization.

Contradict to the proposition that romance of leadership will decrease with increased years of experience within the organization, this study found that the proportion of employees romanticizing leadership increases significantly in more seniority levels. This finding supports the proposition that romance of leadership is contributed in part by the projection of self. Those with personality attributes most often associated with leadership or with a successful leadership experience working in organization are more likely to believe that organizational leadership is very much matter to the success and failure of the organization.

Of the three antecedents to romance of leadership identified at the beginning of the study, personality and cultural background were significant predictors of romance of leadership. The effect size of the relationship between each factor and romance of leadership is medium. Maturity, or life experience, although was also a significant predictor of romance of leadership, has a smaller effect on romance of leadership. This finding suggests that a person's view of the importance of leadership to organizational success and failure is more influence by his or her personality and cultural up bringing than his or her experience acquired working in the organizations.

The study also found that cultural background, gender and maturity have strong moderation effects on the relationship between personality and romance of leadership. For instance, although extraversion is the strongest personality predictor of romance of leadership, it was not significantly correlated with romance of leadership among the participants from India. When the relationship between personality and romance of leadership is evaluated across different genders, the results were different. For extraversion and openness to experience, their relationships with romance of leadership are much stronger among females than males. For the other personality trait factors, their relationships were not significant.

In the case where there are differences among past findings, as in the case of age and romance of leadership, the study provided a potential explanation for these differences based on analyzed data. The relationship between age and romance of leadership, this study found, is most significant within a specific region and culture. This finding provides one explanation for why this relationship was previously found very

significant in one study conducted in the United States but was found not significant in a similar study conducted in Germany.

In terms of predictability, the study found a combination of personality, maturity and cultural background factors that can account for approximately 30% of the change in romance of leadership. The effect size of the relationship between these factors together and romance of leadership is large. The practical significance of these findings was further illustrated using BESD (Figure 25).

Beyond the findings reported, the chapter identified several key limitations inherent in the study and provided recommendations on how to address them.

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APPENDIX A

Summary of Prominent Leader-centered Leadership Perspectives

To distinguish follower-centered leadership perspectives from within leadership study, it is often useful to provide brief discussions of prominent leader-centered perspectives for contrast. This section summarizes several prominent leader-centered perspectives that share a common characteristic of overtly emphasizing the role and influence of the leader in leadership process while ignoring the role of the follower all together. A more detailed description of these leader-centered perspectives can be found in Northhouse's book titled *Leadership* (Northhouse, 2007).

Traits Perspective

This is the grandfather of modern leadership theories. The trait perspective, evolved from the "Great Men" theory of leadership that has spanned centuries, postulates that leadership is mostly a function of personality traits. The core philosophical assumption underlying this leadership perspective is that all great leaders are born endowed with special leadership traits not exist in non-leaders (Shelley A Kirkpatrick & Edwin A Locke, 1991; Zaccaro, 2007). As a result, up through the latter half of the 20th century, leadership researchers predominantly focused on studying established leaders with the overriding goal to uncover the leadership traits shared among these studied leaders (Bass & Stogdill, 1990).

Trait-based leadership perspective is a leader-centered perspective as it ignores the role of followers in the leadership process entirely. Although the modern trait perspective on leadership expanded the meaning of leader traits to include considerations for integrating patterns of personality traits that affect leadership outcomes, it still

remains faithfully focused on the leader as the central, and core, factor of the leadership process (Zaccaro, 2007).

Skills Perspective

The skills perspective of leadership advocates that leadership is learnable trade. Leadership skills include problem-solving, social judgment, and the knowledge skills that can be transferred from person to person through formal leadership skill development programs (Katz, 1974; Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly, & Marks, 2000). Leadership potential is acquired through the development of leadership skills and leadership effectiveness is contingent on repeated utilization of these skills.

Because it focuses entirely on the leader, like the trait perspective, the skills perspective is leader-centered. Uncovering learnable leadership skills and packaging them for leadership development training is the focus of skill-based leadership research.

Style Perspective

The style perspective of leadership explores various distinguishing leadership styles along the two dimensions of focus, concern for task completion and the concern for relationship development (Northouse, 2007). Style-based researchers focus on finding what combination of task completion and relationship building is most optimal to get work done within specific situations. An example of style-based leadership is Blake and Mouton's Managerial (Leadership) Grid model which identifies seven distinguished leadership styles derived from a combination of concerns for task completion and relationship development (Blake & Mouton, 1994). Leadership effectiveness in the Grid model is measured by the leader's ability to focus on maximizing both task and relationship simultaneously (Blake & Mouton, 1982; Northouse, 2007).

Style perspective is a leader-centered perspective. It focuses on what leadership styles are perceived to be most effective in different situations as reported through surveys completed by followers.

Situational Perspective

The situational perspective of leadership advocates a more flexible approach to leading. A situational leader exercises different leadership styles according to the development needs of the followers (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985). Followers' development needs are characterized as job competence and commitment. An example of situation-based leadership theory is Blanchard's Situational Leadership model (Blanchard, 1991) which advocates using a directive style to lead those who have high development needs, and using a delegating style with those who have low development needs. Strong leadership reflects the ability to understand the development needs to the employees and to adopt appropriate leadership styles to meet those needs.

The situational perspective is also a leader-centered perspective as it focuses on identifying which leadership style leaders should adopt based on the developmental level or needs of individual followers.

Contingency Perspective

The contingency perspective of leadership, exemplified by Fielder's Contingency Theory (Peters, Hartke, & Pohlman, 1985), claims that it is more realistic to select leaders whose leadership styles readily meet the needs of the situation than to train leaders to work with different leadership styles for different situations (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). The contingency perspective views leadership style as something that is developed over a

lifetime and is not easily modified. Strong leadership emergence or effectiveness is expected when there is a match between a leader's style and the needs of the situation.

The contingency perspective claims that leaders, bound by their unique leadership styles, cannot be effective in all situations. Research on the contingency theory of leadership focuses on training leaders to be able to identify their unique leadership styles and to be able to diagnose and select situations that favor their particular styles. Its focus on leadership training makes contingency a leader-centered perspective.

Path-Goal Perspective

The Path-Goal perspective of leadership postulates that the key to followers' performance is based on meeting their personal needs and the demands of the task (House, 1971; R. House & Michell, 1974; House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991). Path-goal perspective assumes that leaders understand the nature of the employee's tasks and his/her needs, including emotional needs, and the goals of the task. Leaders can adopt a different leadership style to meet the needs of the followers and provide the followers with resources, including a clarification of the objectives, to complete their tasks.

Path-goal perspective is a leader-centered perspective with followers' needs being treated as moderators of the relationship between leadership behaviors and leadership effectiveness (Shamir, 2007). Application of leadership behaviors that matches the need of followers will lead to successful outcomes. Vice versa, leadership behaviors that do not match the need of followers will not lead to successful outcomes.

Relational Perspective

The relational perspective of leadership study views the dyadic relationship between the leader and the follower as the central determinant of leadership effectiveness

(Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). A strong relationship means effective leadership and a weak relationship means ineffective leadership. The evaluation of leadership effectiveness is based on an analysis of both leader and followers' assessment of the quality of their relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Northouse, 2007). Unique among modern leadership perspectives is its focus on the relationship between the leader and the follower. Relational theories, such as the Leader-Member Exchange theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), is neither leader-centered nor follower-centered, but relationship-centered.

Charismatic and Transformational Perspectives

The charismatic and transformational perspectives view a leader's ability to express shared values, vision, aspiration, and common causes that inspire followers emotionally to collective actions, as central to leadership effectiveness (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977a). Some effects of a charismatic relationship include the followers' willingness to exert extra effort, exhibit self-sacrifice behavior, become emotionally involved, heighten motivation, be willing to accept challenges, have a strong sense of purpose and self-esteem, and trust and follow their leaders (House, 1977b; Northouse, 2007). Transformational perspective expands on charismatic leadership based on four transformational factors (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) that are important for transforming followers away from self-interest to collective-interest (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Great organizational outcomes can be achieved when leaders adopt leadership behaviors that express these four transformational factors.

Transformational leadership is a leader-centered perspective as it focuses on the attributes and behaviors that leaders express in order to build emotional commitment from followers. Focusing on how leaders can build collective aspiration, motivation, and emotional commitment is the hallmark of both the charismatic and the transformational perspectives.

APPENDIX B

17-item Romance of Leadership Scale

This study utilizes the 17 items that were identified as the core factor items of Meindl's Romance of Leadership Scale, documented in Schyns, Meindl, and Croon (2007, p. 44). Romance of leadership scores are computed by adding up the individual scores on these 17 items. Item 12 score is reversed.

Instructions: This questionnaire will ask you to make some generalization about organization leaders and leadership. Each of the statement below describes a general opinion of this topic. Please use the following scale to express the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements. Indicate you opinion in the space provided to the left of each statement. Be sure to respond to *all* the questions.

1 Disagree strongly	2 Disagree	3 Disagree a little	4 Neither agree nor disagree	5 Agree a little	6 Agree	7 Agree strongly
---------------------------	---------------	---------------------------	------------------------------------	------------------------	------------	------------------------

1. When it comes right down to it, the quality of leadership is the single most important influence on the functioning of an organization.
2. Anybody who occupies the top-level leadership positions in an organization has the power to make or break the organization.
3. The great amount of time and energy devoted to choosing a leader is justified; because of the important influence that person is likely to have.
4. Sooner or later, bad leadership at the top will show up in decreased organizational performance.
5. High- versus low-quality leadership has a bigger impact on a firm than a favorable versus unfavorable business environment.
6. It is impossible for an organization to do well unless it has high quality leadership at the top.
7. A company is only as good or as bad as its leaders.

8. With a truly excellent leader, there is almost nothing that an organization can't accomplish.
9. Even in a bad economy, a good leader can prevent a company from doing poorly.
10. Top-level leaders make life-and-death decisions about their organizations.
11. It's probably a good idea to find something out about the quality of top-level leaders before investing in a firm.
12. When a company is doing poorly, the first place one should look to is its leaders.
(R)
13. The process by which leaders are selected is extremely important.
14. When the top leaders are good, the organization does well; when the top leaders are bad, the organization does poorly.
15. There's nothing as critical to the bottom-line' performance of a company as the quality of its top-level leaders.
16. Leadership qualities are among the most highly prized personal traits I can think of.
17. No expense should be spared when searching for and selecting a leader.

NOTE: Reprinted with permission from SAGE on the selection of the 17-item subset of the original Romance of Leadership RLS-A form for use in this dissertation (please see Appendix C).

APPENDIX C


Permission for use of the 17-item RLS core factor from SAGE

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Title: The Romance of Leadership Scale: Cross-cultural Testing and Refinement

Author: Birgit Schyns, James R. Meindl, Marcel A. Croon

Publication: Leadership

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APPENDIX D

Big-Five Inventory (BFI) Response Form and Instructions

This BFI form taken from (John et al., 2008):

Instructions: Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree Strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree strongly

I see myself as someone who

1. ___ Is talkative 2. ___ Tends to find fault with others 3. ___ Does a thorough job 4. ___ Is depressed, blue 5. ___ Is original, comes up with new ideas 6. ___ Is reserved 7. ___ Is helpful and unselfish with others 8. ___ Can be somewhat careless 9. ___ Is relaxed, handles stress well 10. ___ Is curious about many different things 11. ___ Is full of energy 12. ___ Starts quarrels with others 13. ___ Is a reliable worker 14. ___ Can be tense 15. ___ Is ingenious, a deep thinker 16. ___ Generates a lot of enthusiasm 17. ___ Has a forgiving nature 18. ___ Tends to be disorganized 19. ___ Worries a lot 20. ___ Has an active imagination 21. ___ Tends to be quiet 22. ___ Is generally trusting 23. ___ Tends to be lazy	24. ___ Is emotionally stable, not easily upset 25. ___ Is inventive 26. ___ Has an assertive personality 27. ___ Can be cold and aloof 28. ___ Perseveres until the task is finished 29. ___ Can be moody 30. ___ Values artistic, aesthetic experiences 31. ___ Is sometimes shy, inhibited 32. ___ Is considerate and kind to almost everyone 33. ___ Done things efficiently 34. ___ Remains calm in tense situations 35. ___ Prefers work that is routine 36. ___ Is outgoing, sociable 37. ___ Is sometimes rude to others 38. ___ Makes plans and follows through with them 39. ___ Gets nervous easily 40. ___ Likes to reflect, play with ideas 41. ___ Has few artistic interests 42. ___ Like to cooperate with others 43. ___ Is easily distracted 44. ___ Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature
--	--

Please check: Did you write a number in front of each statement?

Computing Simple BFI Scale Scores:

Big-Five Inventory scale scoring: Reverse score the items labeled “R” and compute scale scores as the mean of the following items:

- Extraversion (8 items): 1, 6R, 11, 16, 21R, 26, 31R, 36
- Agreeableness (9 items): 2R, 7, 12R, 17, 22, 27R, 32, 37R, 42
- Conscientiousness (9 items): 4, 9R, 14, 19, 24R, 29, 34R, 39
- Openness (10 items): 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, 44

Copyright 1991 by Oliver P. John.


NOTE: The Big-Five Inventory is freely available for non-commercial research purposes (John, 2010). For more information, please contact

Oliver P. John, Director
Institute of Personality & Social Research
4140 Tolman Hall #5050
Berkeley, CA 94720
Office: (510) 642-2178
Fax: (510) 643-9334
ucbpersonalitylab@gmail.com

APPENDIX E

Human Participants Protection Education for Research Certificate



Human Participant Protections Education for Research Teams

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Human Participant Protections Education for Research Teams

Completion Certificate

This is to certify that

Vu Tran

has completed the **Human Participants Protection Education for Research Teams** online course, sponsored by the National Institutes of Health (NIH), on 03/27/2007.

This course included the following:

- key historical events and current issues that impact guidelines and legislation on human participant protection in research.
- ethical principles and guidelines that should assist in resolving the ethical issues inherent in the conduct of research with human participants.
- the use of key ethical principles and federal regulations to protect human participants at various stages in the research process.
- a description of guidelines for the protection of special populations in research.
- a definition of informed consent and components necessary for a valid consent.
- a description of the role of the IRB in the research process.
- the roles, responsibilities, and interactions of federal agencies, institutions, and researchers in conducting research with human participants.

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APPENDIX F

Online Survey Questionnaires

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

1. Welcome to my study

Dear NDS colleague,

Thank you for participating in my research project titled, "Romancing Organizational Leadership: A Study of the Relationship between Personality, Experience, Cultural Background and Leadership Perception in a Multinational Organization."

My research survey measures employee opinions on the importance of organizational leadership affecting organizational performance. If there is a significant difference in the opinions, I would like to see if we can explain these differences through contributing personal factors such as personality traits, nationality, years of experience, years of education, seniority in company and age.

This is an opinion survey, so there is no right or wrong answer. Your honest opinions will be most valuable to the study. Please make sure to take this survey alone and complete all the questions.

The survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete.

Sincerely,

Vu Tran
NDS Americas - Costa Mesa
vtran@nds.com

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

2. Informed Consent for Participating in this Study

Before going further, please take a couple of minutes to review this informed consent for participation in this study:

1. I agree to participate in the research study being conducted by Vu Tran under the direction of Dr. Thomas Penderghast. This study partially fulfills the requirements for a doctoral dissertation at Pepperdine University, CA, USA.
2. The study, titled "Romancing Organizational Leadership: A study of the relationship between personality, maturity, national culture, and romance of leadership in a multinational organization," is designed to investigate the linkage between a personality, maturity, cultural background and personal opinions about the important role organizational leadership plays in effecting organization's performance. This study will help to improve our general understanding of organizational leadership through the perspective of the followers.
3. I will complete an online survey. The questions on the survey are intended for measuring my general opinions toward the impact organizational leadership, my personality traits, my cultural background, and my demographic information. It is estimated that average time it takes to complete the survey is about 15 to 25 minutes.
4. I understand that the possible benefits to myself or society from this research are:
To contribute to the development of better understanding of human attitudes about leadership in organization across time, personalities and national cultures. Also of immediate benefit me is a potential winning of an Apple iPad 2 computer (model MC769LL/A Tablet 16G/WiFi/Black) in a sweepstake process made available for all those who participated in the survey.
5. I understand that there are certain risks and discomforts that might be associated with this research. These risks include: Breach of Confidentiality of online survey. The principal investigator will take all reasonable measures to protect the confidentiality of my records and identity, including hiring a professional survey hosting company that can support secured transmission and storage of survey responses. During the analysis phase, my data will be stored in PGP-encrypted disk in my computer, accessible only by the principal investigator. A hard copy of the data will be stored securely in his office. If the findings of the study will be presented to professional audiences or published in the future, neither information that identifies me personally nor NDS will be released. The data will be kept for at least 5 years at which time the data will be destroyed.
6. I understand a foreseeable risk associated with participation in this study is the emotional response to the survey contents, including questions such as "I see myself as someone that is depressed." While these may not seem especially "high risk" questions, there is a possibility that an adverse reaction could occur from reading such questions. Since the use of these questionnaires (i.e., both the romance of leadership and big-5 personality questionnaires) in the 1960s in previous leadership and personality studies, the principal investigator is not aware of any incident where these specific questions had triggered adverse emotional responses in participants.

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

3. Informed Consent for Participating in this Study (2 of 2)

7. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may refuse to participate and/or withdraw my consent and discontinue participation in the project or activity at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled.

8. I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the research herein described (see contact information below). I understand that I may contact Dr. Thomas Penderghast at Tom.Penderghast@pepperdine.edu if I have other questions or concerns about this research. If I have questions about my rights as a research participant, I understand that I can contact Dr. Yuying Tsong, Chairperson of the Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (IRB), Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology, 6100 Center Drive 5th Floor, Los Angeles, CA 90045, (310) 568-2389.

9. I understand that if I choose to receive documentation of my participation, to sign an actual informed consent form, and/or to receive an actual informed consent form, I can send an email request to the principal investigator Vu Tran (vtran@nds.com) and a written document will be provided to me by mail.

10. I understand to my satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have read this informed consent form. By clicking the "Continue" button below to start the survey, I hereby consent to participate in this study.

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

4. Demographic Information

Please enter some information about you

***1. Are you male or female?**

- ☐ Male
☐ Female

***2. What is your age?**

Age

***3. How many years have you been working full-time (40 hours/week)?**

Years of working

***4. Of the years of full time employment, how many years have you been given the responsibility to lead/manage one or more employees?**

Years of management experience

***5. What is your assigned job family (Band) level at the company?**

- ☐ Above level 6 (most senior level)
☐ Level 6
☐ Level 5
☐ Level 4
☐ Level 3
☐ Level 2
☐ Level 1 or 0 (most junior level)

***6. How many years of formal college/university education, beyond high-school, do you have?**

Years of college education

***7. What is your company home region (where you receive your paycheck from)?**

- ☐ India
☐ Israel
☐ UK
☐ US

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

* 8. Which national culture you feel most culturally identified with?

☐ India

☐ Israel

☐ UK

☐ US

☐ Other

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

5. Leadership Opinion Questionnaires (17 items)

This section will ask you to make some generalization about organization leaders and leadership. Each of the statement below describes a general opinion of this topic. Please select the choice which reflects most accurately the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements. Be sure to respond to all the questions.

***1. When it comes right down to it, the quality of leadership is the single most important influence on the functioning of an organization**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

***2. Anybody who occupies the top-level leadership positions in an organization has the power to make or break the organization**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

***3. The great amount of time and energy devoted to choosing a leader is justified; because of the important influence that person is likely to have.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

***4. Sooner or later, bad leadership at the top will show up in decreased organizational performance.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

***5. High- versus low-quality leadership has a bigger impact on a firm than a favorable versus unfavorable business environment.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

***6. It is impossible for an organization to do well unless it has high quality leadership at the top.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

***7. A company is only as good or as bad as its leaders.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

***8. With a truly excellent leader, there is almost nothing that an organization can't accomplish.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

6. Leadership Opinion Questionnaires (2 of 2)

***1. Even in a bad economy, a good leader can prevent a company from doing poorly.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

***2. Top-level leaders make life-and-death decisions about their organizations.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

***3. It's probably a good idea to find something out about the quality of top-level leaders before investing in a firm.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

***4. When a company is doing poorly, the first place one should look to is its leaders.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

***5. The process by which leaders are selected is extremely important.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

***6. When the top leaders are good, the organization does well; when the top leaders are bad, the organization does poorly.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

***7. There's nothing as critical to the bottom-line' performance of a company as the quality of its top-level leaders.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

***8. Leadership qualities are among the most highly prized personal traits I can think of.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

***9. No expense should be spared when searching for and selecting a leader.**

- ☐ Agree Strongly
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Agree a Little
- ☐ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- ☐ Disagree a Little
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Disagree Strongly

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

7. Personality Traits Questionnaires (44 items)

This section collects your personality information. Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please select a choice next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

*1. I see myself as someone who

	Agree Strongly	Agree	Agree a Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree a Little	Disagree	Disagree Strongly
Can be somewhat careless	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Does a thorough job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is curious about many different things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is depressed, blue	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is full of energy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is helpful and unselfish with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is original, comes up with new ideas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is relaxed, handles stress well	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is reserved	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is talkative	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tends to find fault with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

8. Personality Traits Questionnaires (2 of 4)

*1. I see myself as someone who

	Agree Strongly	Agree	Agree a Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree a Little	Disagree	Disagree Strongly
Can be tense	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Generates a lot of enthusiasm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Has a forgiving nature	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Has an active imagination	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is a reliable worker	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is generally trusting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is ingenious, a deep thinker	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Starts quarrels with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tends to be disorganized	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tends to be quiet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Worries a lot	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

9. Personality Traits Questionnaires (3 of 4)

*1. I see myself as someone who

	Agree Strongly	Agree	Agree a Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree a Little	Disagree	Disagree Strongly
Can be cold and aloof	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Can be moody	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Done things effectively	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Has an assertive personality	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is considerate and kind to almost everyone	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is emotionally stable, not easily upset	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is inventive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is sometimes shy, inhibited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Perseveres until the task is finished	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tends to be lazy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Values artistic, aesthetic experiences	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey on Employees' Opinions of Organizational Leadership

10. Personality Traits Questionnaires (4 of 4)

* 1. I see myself as someone who

	Agree Strongly	Agree	Agree a Little	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree a Little	Disagree	Disagree Strongly
Gets nervous easily	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Has few artistic interests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is easily distracted	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is outgoing, sociable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is sometimes rude to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Like to cooperate with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Likes to reflect, play with ideas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Makes plans and follows through with them	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Prefers work that is routine	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Remains calm in tense situations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX G

Request for Permission to Recruit Survey Participants from [REDACTED]

Dear [name],

I am writing this letter to ask your permission to invite your employees to participate in a study on leadership perception. This study is a part of my graduate work, required for completion of a doctoral study in Organizational Leadership at Pepperdine University, USA. The formal title of this study is *Romancing Organizational Leadership: A Study of the Relationship between Personality, Maturity, and Cultural Background, and Leadership Perception in a Multinational Organization*.

In this study, I attempt to quantify the impact of various personal factors on people's general perceptions of leadership. Today, it is recognized that the nature, causes, and impact of these perceptions has neither been adequately understood nor accounted for in leader performance rating practices across organizations. The findings of my study hopefully will lead to improvements in the analysis and interpretation of leadership ratings in organizations.

To participate in this study, your employees will be asked to take an online survey which includes 2 cross-cultural questionnaires and some demographics questions. One questionnaire is used to measure their personality traits, and the other to measure their opinions of the degree of importance top leadership has in influencing organizational outcomes. From the survey responses, aggregated leadership opinion measures will be correlated against aggregated measures such as personality traits, years of experience, and national culture.

The study will involve participants from four [REDACTED] regional offices: India, Israel, the United Kingdom, and the United States. To meet the requirements of the study, I am looking to collect survey responses from at least 100 participants per regional office. It is estimated that it will take between 15 to 25 minutes to complete 69 question items on the survey. Participation in this study by taking the survey is strictly voluntary. The survey responses will be kept in confidential, accessible only by me for the purpose of the study. They will be destroyed after five years. Information about the identity of the participants or the company will be kept in strict confidential. A summary report will be available to share with those within our company who might be interested in the findings in approximately 6 months after the completion of the study.

To thank those participating in helping me to complete this study, participants who complete the online survey will have an opportunity to win an Apple iPad 2 tablet in a sweepstake drawing. I will donate two iPad 2 (64GB, WiFi) tablets for the

drawing. Participants who completed the online survey will have opportunity to enter for the drawings. To ensure fairness, the drawings will be carried out by volunteers from our Human Resources organization.

Thank you ahead for considering this request. If you need additional information or clarification before making your decisions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely yours,

Vu Tran

A black rectangular redaction box covering the signature of Vu Tran.

Attachments:

1. Permission to Recruit Participants Study Form
2. Sample of the Survey

Permission to Recruit Participants for Study

I, _____, granted Vu Tran permission to contact and invite employees in my organization to participate in his study entitled *Romancing Organizational Leadership: A Study of the Relationship between Personality, Maturity, and Cultural Background, and Leadership Perception in a Multinational Organization*. I understand that participation in this study is strictly on a voluntary basis. Vu will ensure that all aspect of the study will be done in accordance to the ethical principles of human research protections, and as established by the American Psychological Association for conducting research with human participants. In addition, Vu will make sure to secure a clearance from our company's Human Resources department.

Name

Position

Signature

Date

APPENDIX H

Survey Introductory Email

Dear [name]

My name is Vu Tran, and I am an employee of the [redacted]. I am sending this email, with a permission from your manager [name], to invite you to participate in an exciting online research study with an opportunity to win an Apple iPad 2 (64B, Wi-Fi) tablet. This online study will be only available to a limited number of employees in our company from [date] to [date].

This study, part of my dissertation study at Pepperdine University, is designed to help improve our understanding of the effect of personal factors such as personality and maturity on our opinions about the importance of organizational leadership across different national cultures. My research study is entitled *Romancing Organizational Leadership: A Study of the Relationship between Personality, Maturity, and Cultural Background, and Leadership Perception in a Multinational Organization*. The professor supervising my work is Dr. Thomas Penderghast of Pepperdine University.

If you should decide to participate in the study, you will be asked to answer some basic demographics, personality, and leadership perception questions in an online survey. It should take about 15-25 minutes of your time to complete the survey. Please complete this survey alone. Your honest opinions will ensure the validity of the study results, which will be of tremendous benefit to this study and future leadership studies.

Once completing the online survey, you will be redirected to participate in a sweepstake drawing. To thank you for your time completing the survey, I donated two Apple iPad 2 tablets into the sweepstake. The drawing will take place two weeks after the closing of the online survey, and the winners will be announced through our Human Resources organization. Please make sure to register your name in the sweepstake.

I will take all reasonable measures to protect the confidentiality of your records and identity. Through agreement with our Human Resources organization, I am the only person who will have access to your survey responses. A hard copy of the responses will be stored securely in my office for backup. If the findings of the study will be presented to professional audiences or published in the future, neither information that identifies you personally nor [redacted] will be released. The survey responses will be kept for at least 5 years at which time it will be destroyed.

Taking the online survey is on a voluntary basis. If you should decide to participate and then decided that you are not interested in completing the survey, you have the right to discontinue at any point. Incomplete survey responses will be automatically excluded from the study after the data collection period is over. Your survey responses will be

removed from the study and your name will be removed from the iPad sweepstake drawing.

If you have any questions regarding the information that I have provided above, please do not hesitate to contact me at the email address provided below. If you have further questions or do not feel I have adequately addressed your concerns, please contact Dr. Thomas Penderghast via email at Thomas.Penderghast@pepperdine.edu. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please contact Dr. Doug Leigh, Chairperson of the Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (IRB), Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology, 6100 Center Drive 5th Floor, Los Angeles, CA 90045, (310) 568-2389.

Thank you for taking your time to read this information, and I hope you decide to complete the survey. You are welcome to a brief summary of the study findings in about 6 months after the completion of the survey period. If you decide you are interested in receiving the summary, please don't hesitate to send me a requesting email.

In the next week, you will receive an email with URL link to the online survey. If you decide to participate, just read the next email in its entirety and click on the provided link, which will take you to the survey. Thank you very much in advance for your assistance in completing this study.

Sincerely,

Vu Tran



APPENDIX I

Invitation to Online Survey Email

Dear [name],

Last week, you received an introductory email to a research study that I am conducting as a part of my dissertation work titled *Romancing Organizational Leadership*. This email contains the Internet link to the actual online survey use for this study. If you wish to participate in this study, please read the entire contents of the attached email and then select on the link below to the online survey.

The survey collection will be closed by [date].

In the online survey, you will be asked to answer some basic demographics, personality, and leadership opinion questions in an online survey. It should take about 15 to 25 minutes of your time to complete this survey. Please complete this survey alone. Your honest opinions will ensure the validity of the study results, which will be of tremendous benefit to this study and future leadership studies.

[URL link to the online study will be inserted here]

If you've decided NOT to take or complete the online survey, I appreciate your feedback [URL link] as to why you made such decision. Your feedback will help me improve my online survey design in the future.

Thank you for taking your time to read this information, and I hope you decide to complete the survey. You are welcome to a brief summary of the study findings in about six months. If you decide you are interested in receiving the summary, please don't hesitate to send me a requesting email.

Please feel free to contact me if you have any question.

Sincerely,

Vu Tran



Past announcements are available here [URL]

APPENDIX J

Online Survey Reminder Email

Dear [name],

This email is a friendly reminder. If you have not yet completed the online survey for my research study, please do so in the next couple of days. The survey collection deadline [date] is approaching rather quickly.

In case you need the links to the online survey for each region, you can find them below. Please make sure to select the correct home region.

[URL link to the online study will be inserted here]

If you've decided NOT to take the online survey, I appreciate your feedback [URL link] as to why you've made such decision. Your feedback will help me improve my online survey design in the future.

Thank you for taking your time to read this information, and I hope you decide to complete the survey. You are welcome to a brief summary of the study findings in about 1 year. If you decide you are interested in receiving the summary, please email me at the email address below.

Please feel free to contact me if you have any question.

Sincerely,

Vu Tran



vtran@nds.com

Past announcements are available here [URL]

APPENDIX K

Informed Consent for Participation in this Study

This informed consent description will be posted on the informed consent page of the online survey. Participants will be asked to click on “NEXT” to access the survey questionnaires.

1. I agree to participate in the research study being conducted by Vu Tran under the direction of Dr. Thomas Penderghast.
2. The study is designed to investigate the linkage between a personality, maturity, cultural background and personal opinions about the important role organizational leadership plays in effecting organization’s performance. This study will help to improve our general understanding of organizational leadership through the perspective of the followers.
3. I will complete an online survey. The questions on the survey are intended for measuring my general opinions toward the impact organizational leadership, my personality traits, my cultural background, and my demographic information. It is estimated that average time it takes to complete the survey is about 15 to 25 minutes.
4. I understand that the possible benefits to myself or society from this research are: To contribute to the development of better understanding of human attitudes about leadership in organization across time, personalities and cultures. Also of immediate benefit me is a potential winning of an Apple iPad 2 tablet in a sweepstake process made available for all participants who completed the online survey.
5. I understand that there are certain risks and discomforts that might be associated with this research. These risks include: Breach of Confidentiality of online survey. The principal investigator will take all reasonable measures to protect the confidentiality of my records and identity, including hiring a professional survey hosting company that can support secured transmission and storage of survey responses. During the analysis phase, my data will be stored in PGP-encrypted disk in my computer, accessible only by the principal investigator. A hard copy of the data can be stored securely in his office. If the findings of the study will be presented to professional audiences or published in the future, neither information that identifies me personally nor [REDACTED] will be released. The data will be kept for at least 5 years at which time the data will be destroyed.
6. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may refuse to participate and/or withdraw my consent and discontinue participation in the project or activity at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled.

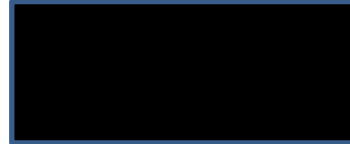
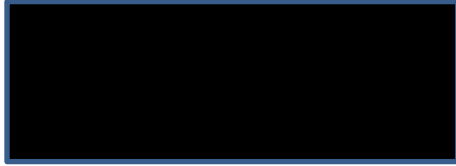
7. I understand that the investigator(s) will take all reasonable measures to protect the confidentiality of my records and my identity will not be revealed in any publication that may result from this project. The confidentiality of my records will be maintained in accordance with applicable state and federal laws. Under California law, there are exceptions to confidentiality, including suspicion that a child, elder, or dependent adult is being abused, or if an individual discloses an intent to harm him/herself or others. I understand there is a possibility that my medical record, including identifying information, may be inspected and/or photocopied by officials of the Food and Drug Administration or other federal or state government agencies during the ordinary course of carrying out their functions. If I participate in a sponsored research project, a representative of the sponsor may inspect my research records.

I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the research herein described (see contact information below). I understand that I may contact Dr. Thomas Penderghast at Thomas.Penderghast@pepperdine.edu if I have other questions or concerns about this research. If I have questions about my rights as a research participant, I understand that I can contact Dr. Doug Leigh, Chairperson of the Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (IRB), Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology, 6100 Center Drive 5th Floor, Los Angeles, CA 90045, (310) 568-2389.

8. I will be informed of any significant new findings developed during the course of my participation in this research which may have a bearing on my willingness to continue in the study.
9. I understand that in the event of physical injury resulting from the research procedures in which I am to participate, no form of compensation is available. Medical treatment may be provided at my own expense or at the expense of my health care insurer which may or may not provide coverage. If I have questions, I should contact my insurer.
10. I understand to my satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have received a copy of this informed consent form which I have read and understand. I hereby consent to participate in the research described above.

APPENDIX L

Permission to Recruit Participants from [REDACTED]



February 11, 2011

Graduate and Professional Schools
Institutional Review Board
Pepperdine University

Dear Committee,

Vu Tran has been given permission to contact and invite NDS [REDACTED]s to participate in his study entitled *Romancing Organizational Leadership: A Study of the Relationship between Personality, Maturity and Cultural Background, and Leadership Perception in a Multinational Organization*. I understand that participation in this study is strictly on a voluntary basis. Vu will ensure that all aspects of the study will be done in accordance to the ethical principles of human research protections, and as established by the American Psychological Association for conducting research with human participants.

Regards,



Director, Human Resources



APPENDIX M

Descriptive Statistics of the Survey Participants

Table M41

Frequency Distribution of Survey Participants based on Gender

Are you male or female?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	306	78.9	78.9	78.9
	Female	82	21.1	21.1	100.0
	Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table M42

Frequency Distribution of Participants across Different Home Regions

What is your company home region (where you receive your paycheck from)?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	India	98	25.3	25.3	25.3
	Israel	123	31.7	31.7	57.0
	UK	77	19.8	19.8	76.8
	US	90	23.2	23.2	100.0
	Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table M43

Frequency Distribution of Participants across Different National Cultures

Which national culture you feel most culturally identified with?				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
India	103	26.5	26.5	26.5
Israel	119	30.7	30.7	57.2
UK	79	20.4	20.4	77.6
US	87	22.4	22.4	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table M44

Frequency Distribution for all Survey Participants with Regard to Seniority Level (JFT)

Seniority Level (JFT)				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Level 1 or 0	42	10.8	10.8	10.8
Level 2	80	20.6	20.6	31.4
Level 3	93	24.0	24.0	55.4
Level 4	95	24.5	24.5	79.9
Level 5	44	11.3	11.3	91.2
Level 6	20	5.2	5.2	96.4
Above Level 6	14	3.6	3.6	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table M45

Frequency Distribution for all Survey Participants with Regard to Seniority Level (NJFT)

Seniority Level (NJFT)				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Level 0, 1, or 2	122	31.4	31.4	31.4
Level 3	93	24.0	24.0	55.4
Level 4	95	24.5	24.5	79.9
Level 5, 6, or above 6	78	20.1	20.1	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX N

Descriptive Statistics for Romance of Leadership and Personality Trait Factors

Table N46

Descriptive Statistics for Romance of Leadership Scores

			Statistic	Std. Error
RLS	Mean		5.1939	.03243
	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	5.1301	
	for Mean	Upper Bound	5.2577	
	5% Trimmed Mean		5.2031	
	Median		5.2353	
	Variance		.408	
	Std. Deviation		.63877	
	Minimum		3.65	
	Maximum		6.65	
	Range		3.00	
	Interquartile Range		.93	
	Skewness		-.267	.124
	Kurtosis		-.552	.247

Table N47

Descriptive Statistics for Extraversion Scores

			Statistic	Std. Error
Extraversion	Mean		37.5773	.35541
	95% Confidence Interval	Lower Bound	36.8786	
	for Mean	Upper Bound	38.2761	
	5% Trimmed Mean		37.6569	
	Median		38.0000	
	Variance		49.010	
	Std. Deviation		7.00068	
	Minimum		19.00	
	Maximum		54.00	
	Range		35.00	
	Interquartile Range		9.00	
	Skewness		-.202	.124
	Kurtosis		-.292	.247

Table N48

Descriptive Statistics for Agreeableness Scores

			Statistic	Std. Error
Agreeableness	Mean		50.1830	.30832
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	49.5768	
		Upper Bound	50.7892	
	5% Trimmed Mean		50.3918	
	Median		51.0000	
	Variance		36.884	
	Std. Deviation		6.07320	
	Minimum		31.00	
	Maximum		63.00	
	Range		32.00	
	Interquartile Range		7.00	
	Skewness		-.524	.124
	Kurtosis		.270	.247

Table N49

Descriptive Statistics for Neuroticism Scores

			Statistic	Std. Error
Neuroticism	Mean		24.8773	.38275
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	24.1248	
		Upper Bound	25.6299	
	5% Trimmed Mean		24.6627	
	Median		24.0000	
	Variance		56.842	
	Std. Deviation		7.53937	
	Minimum		9.00	
	Maximum		47.00	
	Range		38.00	
	Interquartile Range		11.00	
	Skewness		.352	.124
	Kurtosis		-.248	.247

Table N50

Descriptive Statistics for Conscientiousness Scores

			Statistic	Std. Error
Conscientiousness	Mean		50.3357	.31822
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	49.7100	
		Upper Bound	50.9614	
	5% Trimmed Mean		50.5030	
	Median		51.0000	
	Variance		39.290	
	Std. Deviation		6.26820	
	Minimum		31.00	
	Maximum		63.00	
	Range		32.00	
	Interquartile Range		9.00	
	Skewness		-.403	.124
	Kurtosis		-.241	.247

Table N51

Descriptive Statistics for Openness to Experience Scores

		Statistic	Std. Error
Openness	Mean	58.4948	.33051
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	57.8450
		Upper Bound	59.1447
	5% Trimmed Mean	58.6558	
	Median	59.0000	
	Variance	42.385	
	Std. Deviation	6.51038	
	Minimum	33.00	
	Maximum	77.00	
	Range	44.00	
	Interquartile Range	9.00	
	Skewness	-.380	.124
	Kurtosis	.608	.247

Table N52

Tests of Normality for Romance of Leadership and Personality Trait Factor Scores

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
RLS	.064	388	.001	.985	388	.000
Extraversion	.064	388	.001	.991	388	.022
Agreeableness	.074	388	.000	.979	388	.000
Neuroticism	.059	388	.002	.985	388	.001
Conscientiousness	.079	388	.000	.982	388	.000
Openness	.057	388	.004	.989	388	.004

^aLilliefors Significance Correction

Table N53

Test of Homogeneity of Variance

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
RLS	Based on Mean	2.287	3	384	.078
	Based on Median	2.222	3	384	.085
	Based on trimmed mean	2.288	3	384	.078
Extraversion	Based on Mean	2.106	3	384	.099
	Based on Median	2.226	3	384	.085
	Based on trimmed mean	2.133	3	384	.096
Agreeableness	Based on Mean	2.681	3	384	.047
	Based on Median	2.206	3	384	.087
	Based on trimmed mean	2.537	3	384	.056
Neuroticism	Based on Mean	1.134	3	384	.335
	Based on Median	1.074	3	384	.360
	Based on trimmed mean	1.105	3	384	.347
Conscientiousness	Based on Mean	.890	3	384	.447
	Based on Median	.917	3	384	.433
	Based on trimmed mean	.950	3	384	.416
Openness	Based on Mean	2.176	3	384	.090
	Based on Median	2.051	3	384	.106
	Based on trimmed mean	2.107	3	384	.099

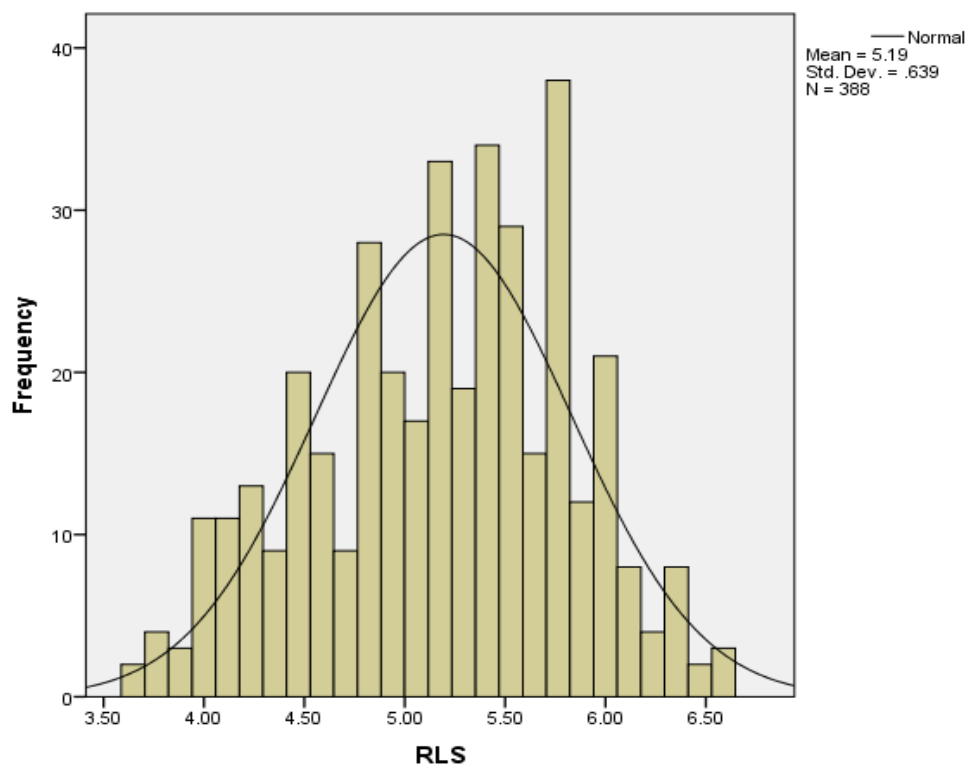


Figure N26. Histogram of romance of leadership scores

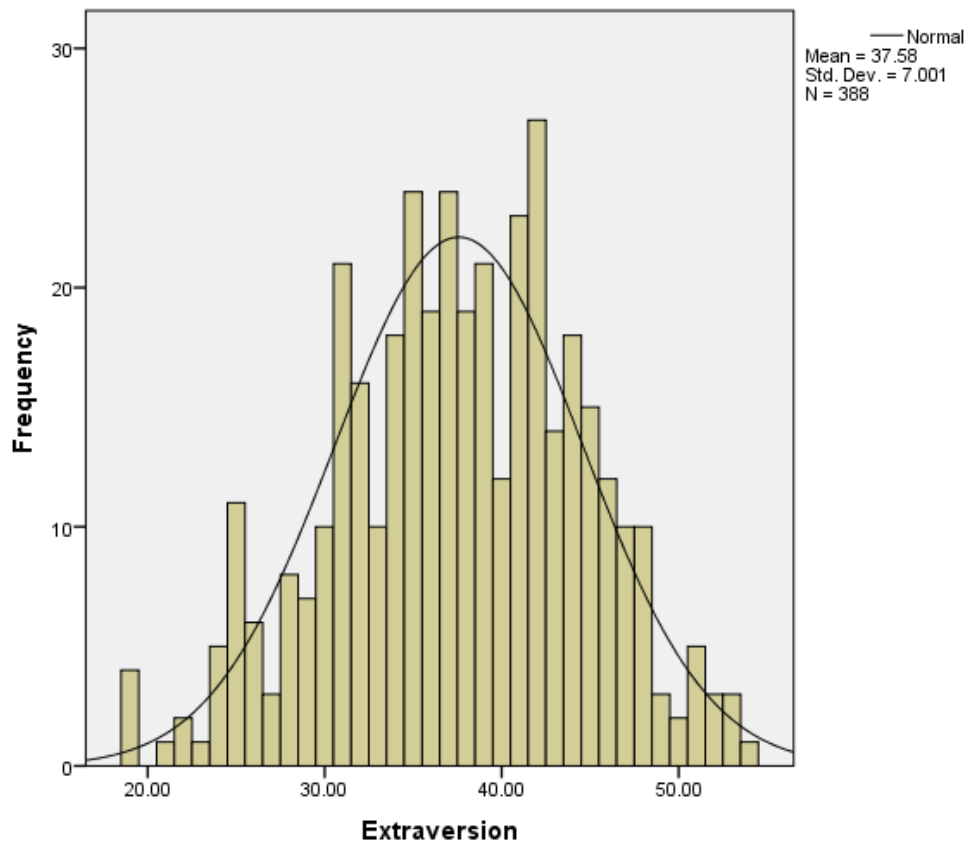


Figure N27. Histogram of extraversion scores

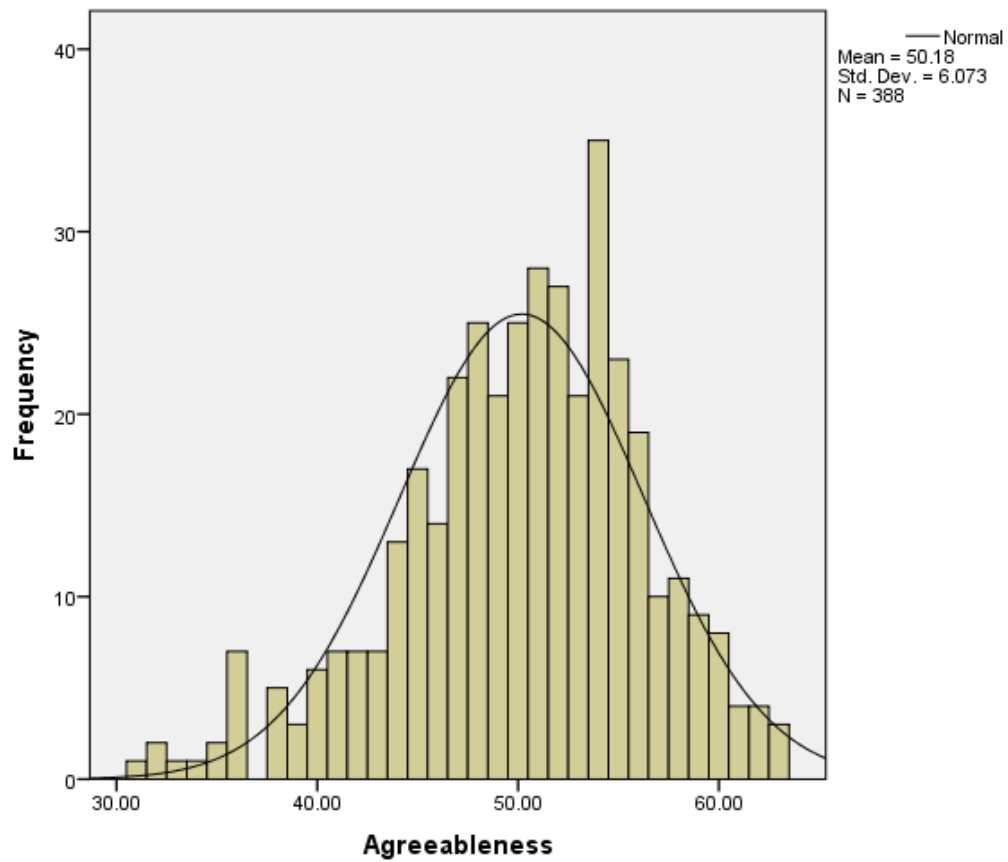


Figure N28. Histogram of agreeableness scores

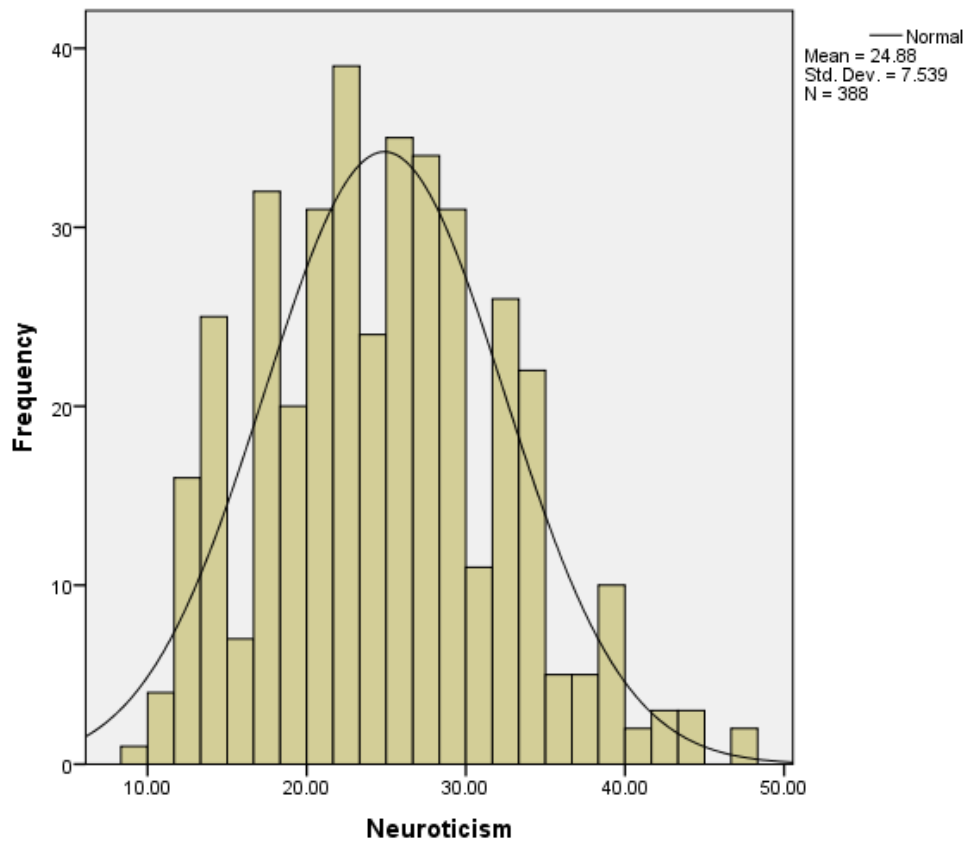


Figure N29. Histogram of neuroticism scores

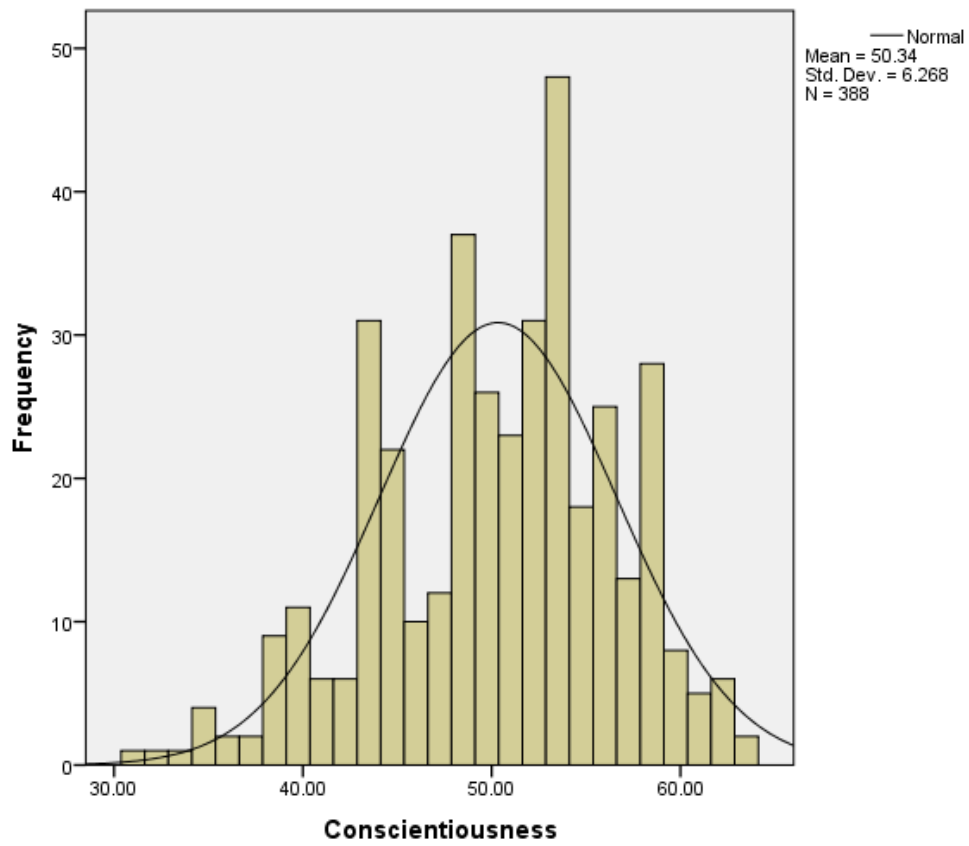


Figure N30. Histogram of conscientiousness scores

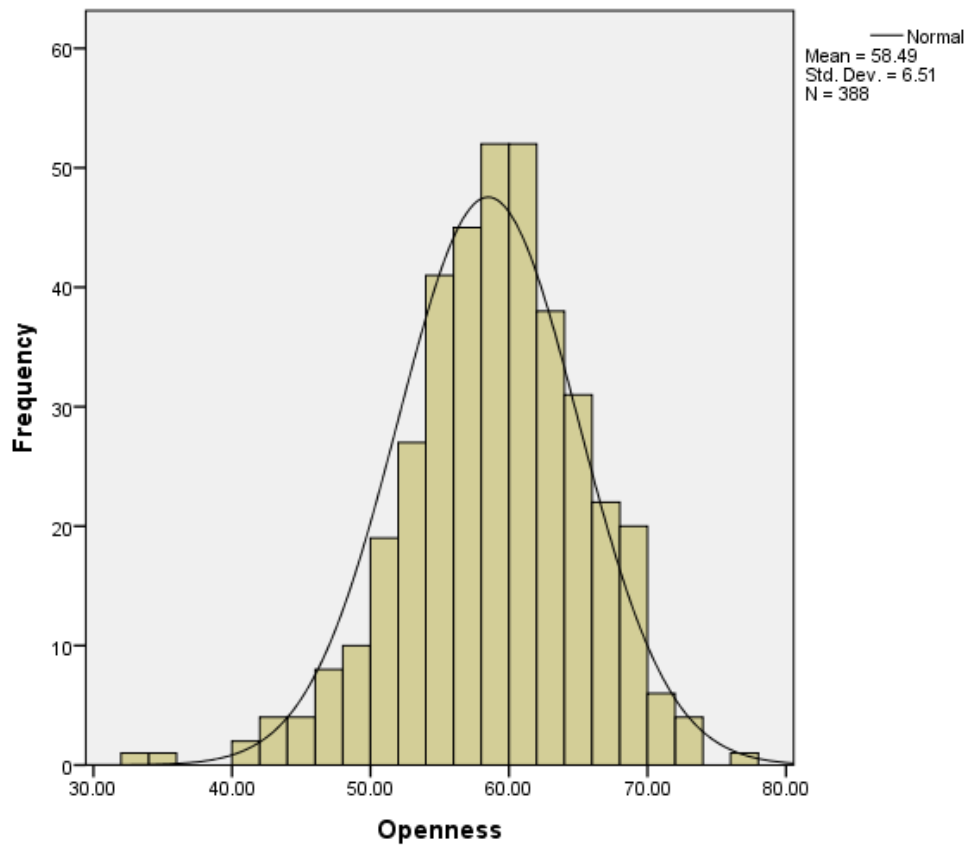


Figure N31. Histogram of openness to experience scores

APPENDIX O

Descriptive Statistics of Survey Participants in regard to Their Collective Endorsements of the 17 Romance of Leadership Statements

Table O54

Frequency Distribution of Participants' Agreements with the 17 Leadership Statements

RLS Ranges					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Neutral	63	16.2	16.2	16.2
	Agree a Little	185	47.7	47.7	63.9
	Agree	137	35.3	35.3	99.2
	Agree Strongly	3	.8	.8	100.0
	Total	388	100.0	100.0	

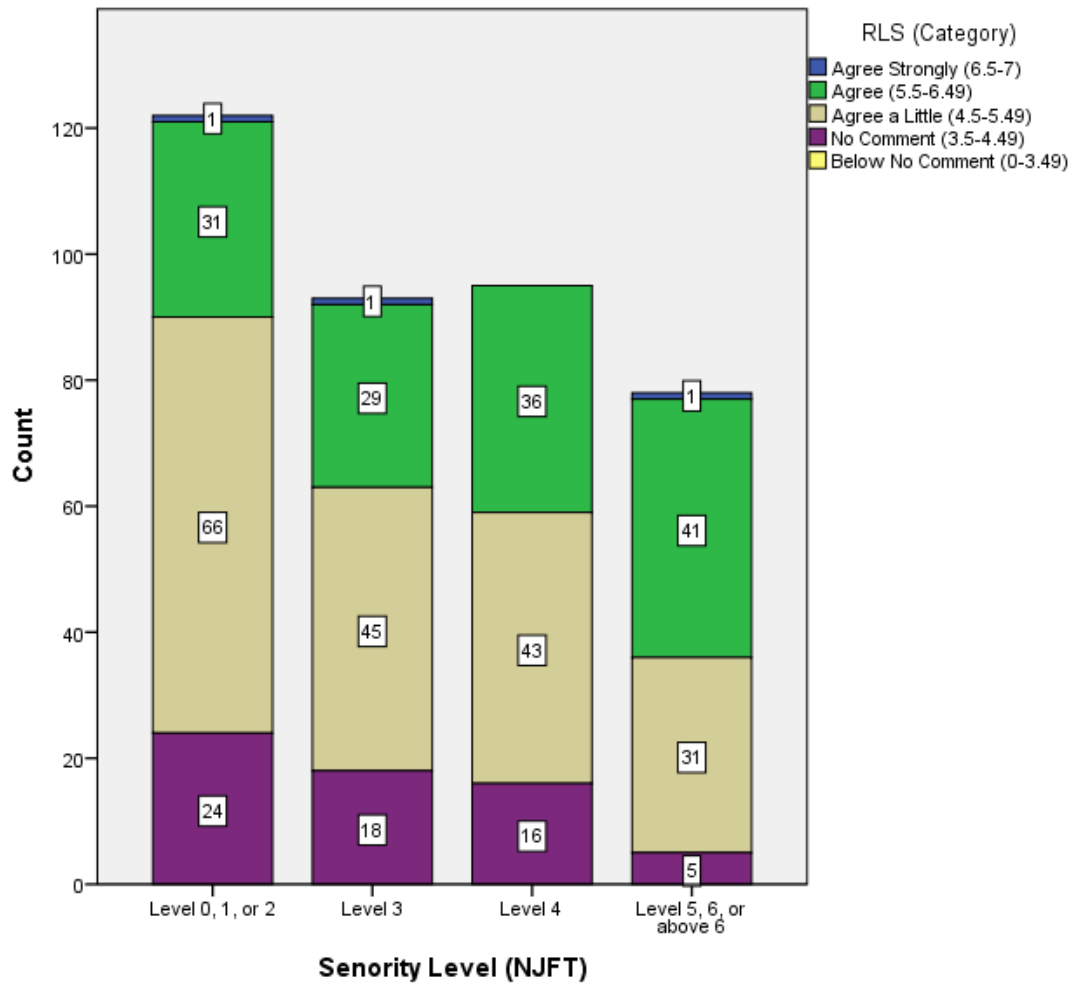


Figure O32. Frequency distribution of the responses of participant to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level

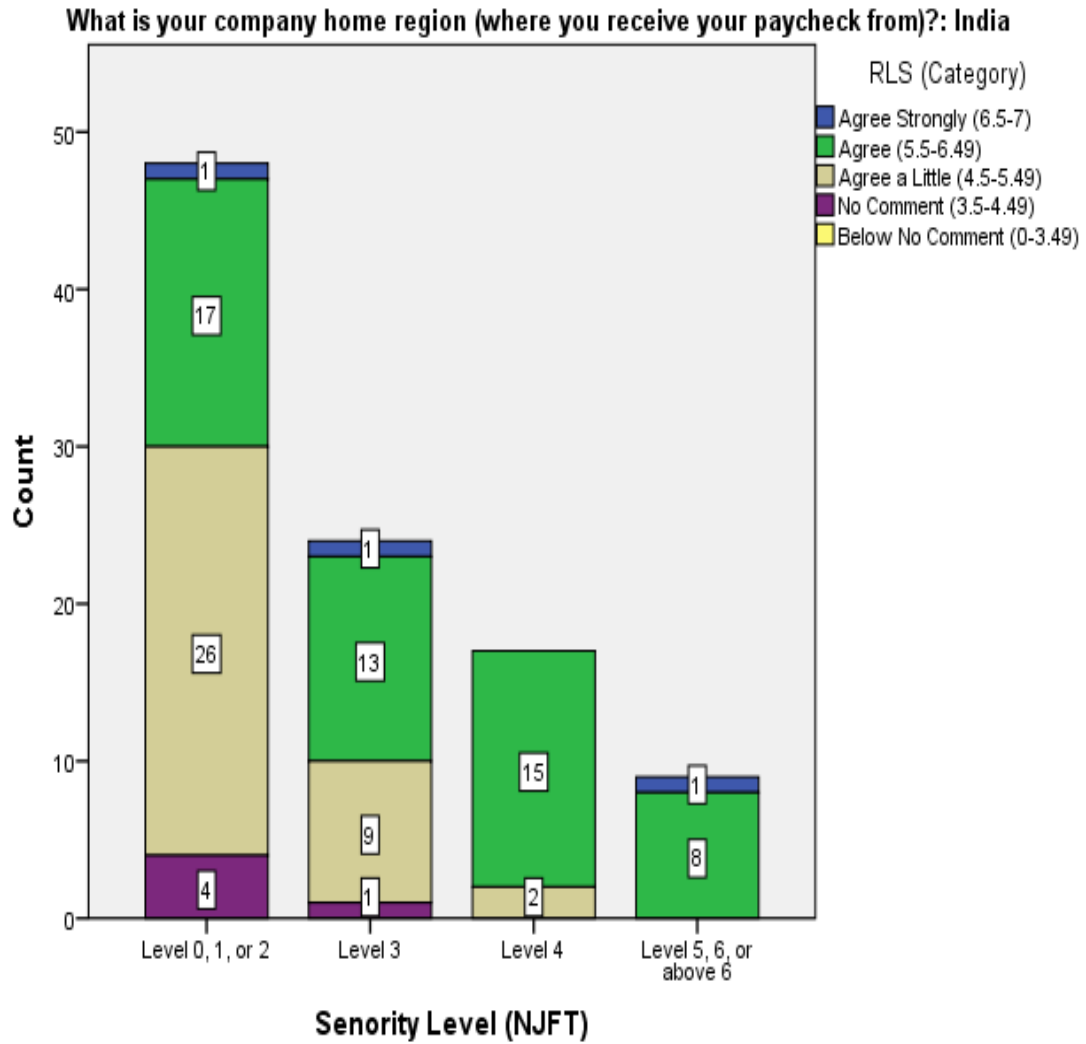


Figure O33. Frequency distribution of the responses of participants from India to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level

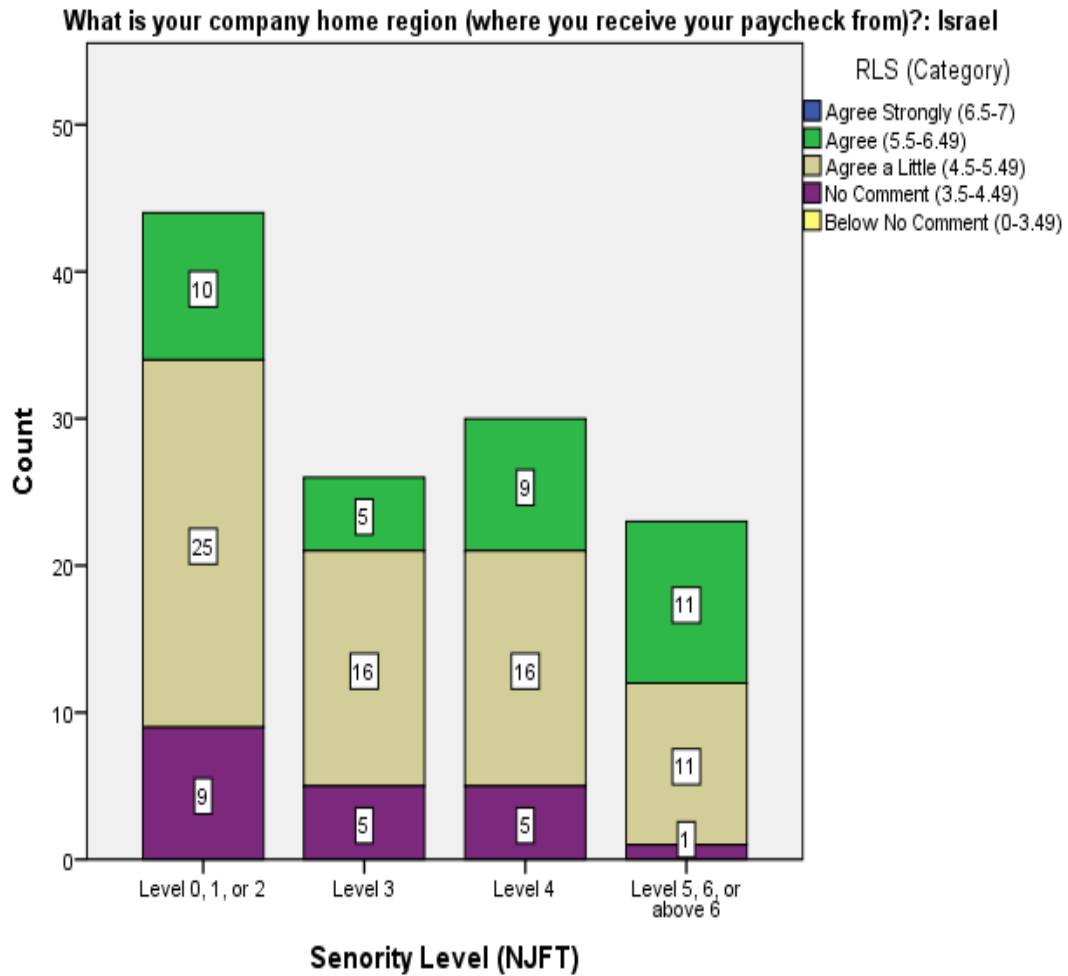


Figure O34. Frequency distribution of the responses of participants from Israel to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level

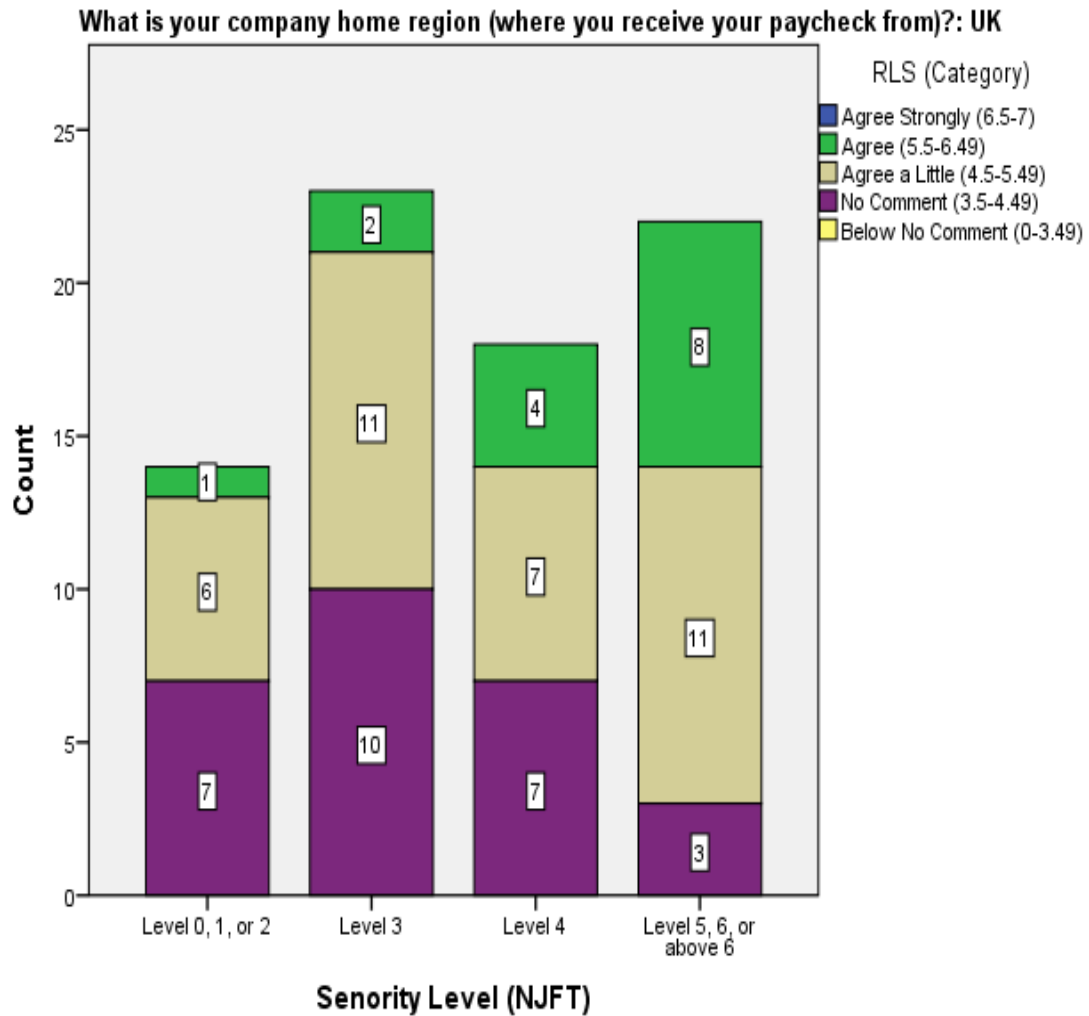


Figure O35. Frequency distribution of the responses of participants from the United Kingdom to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level

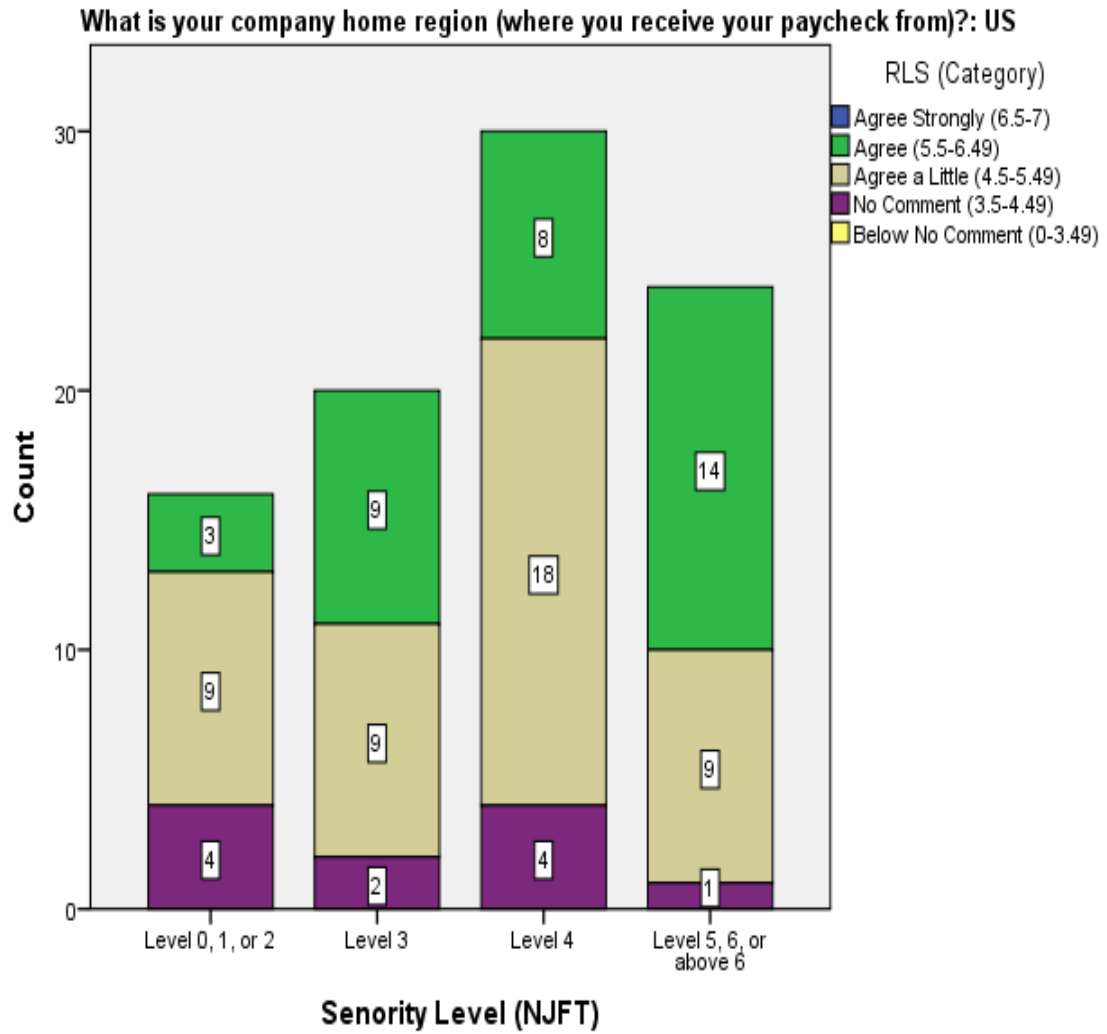


Figure O36. Frequency distribution of the responses of participants from the United States to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level

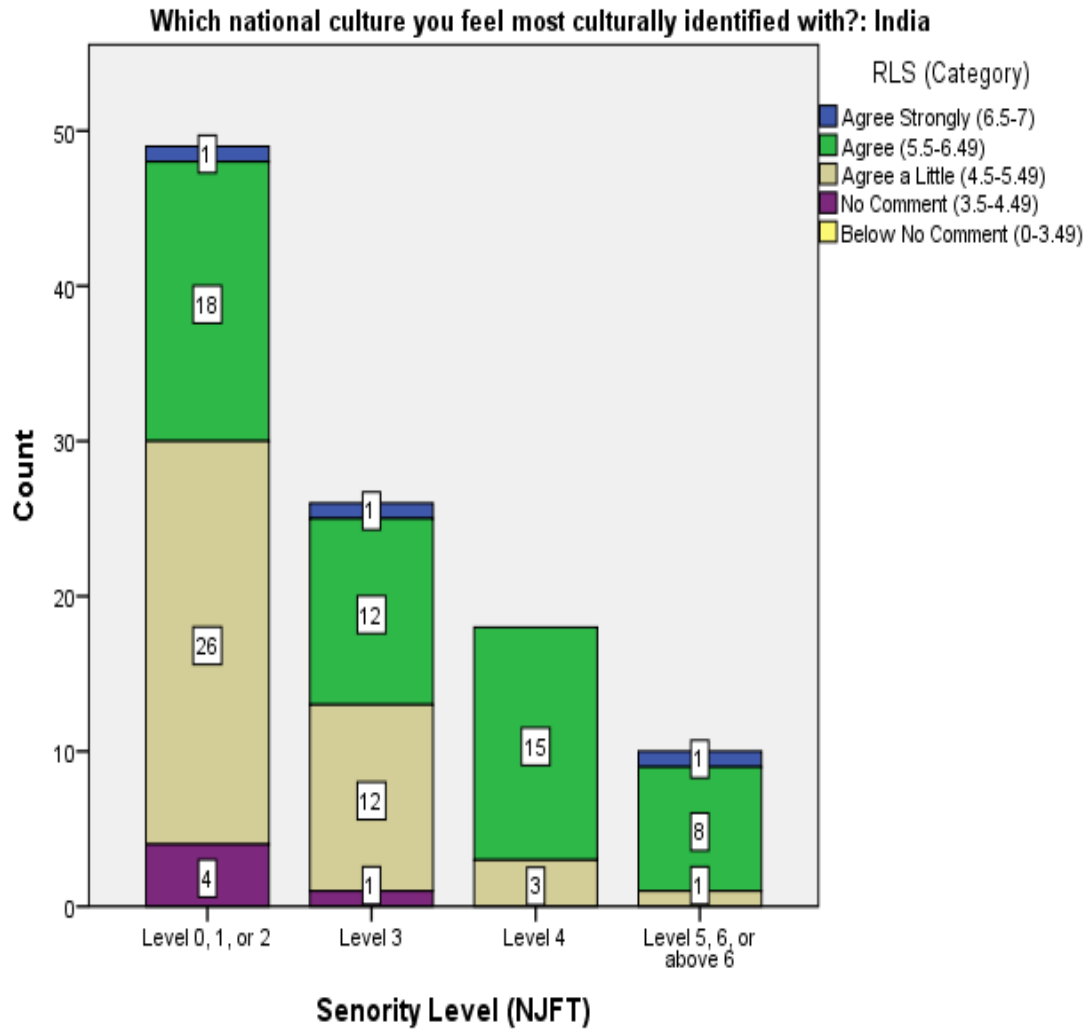


Figure O37. Frequency distribution of the response to 17 leadership statements for participants who identified culturally with the people from India, grouped by seniority level

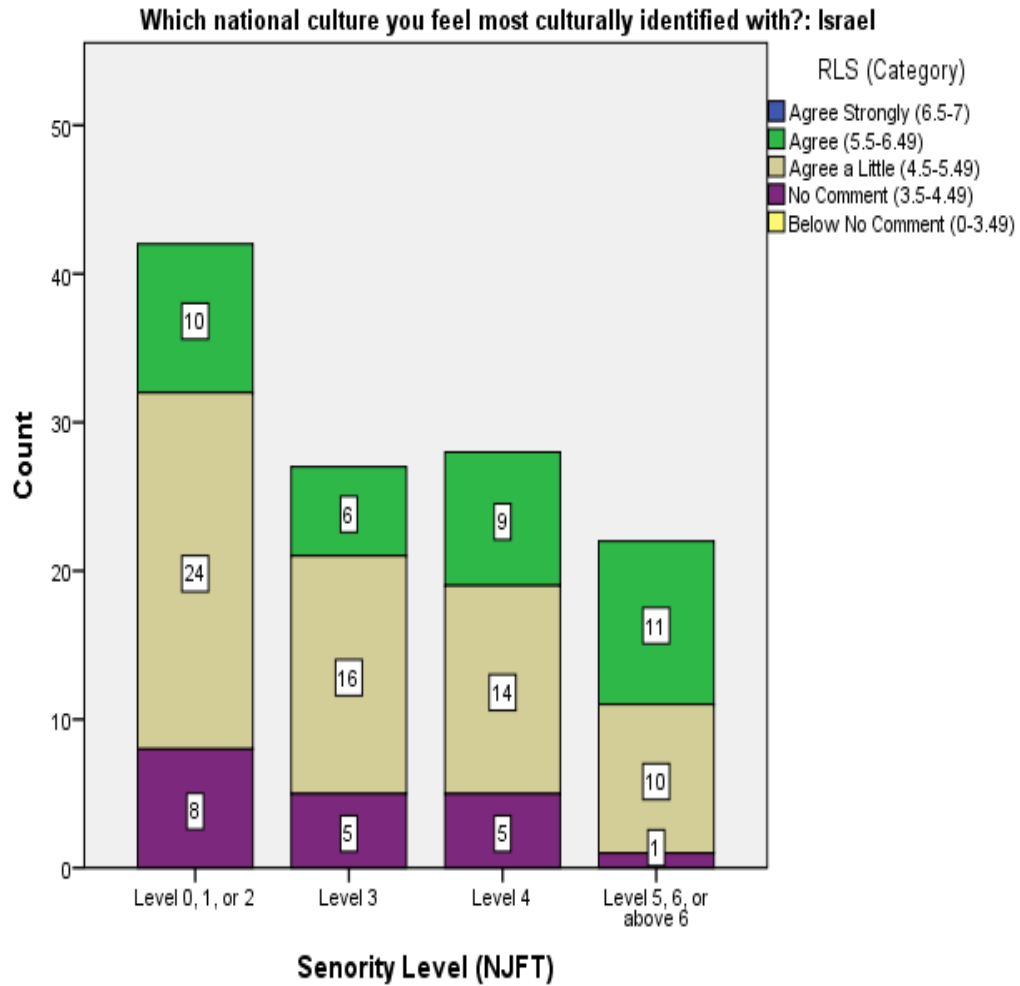


Figure O38. Frequency distribution of the response to 17 leadership statements for participants who identified culturally with the people from Israel, grouped by seniority level

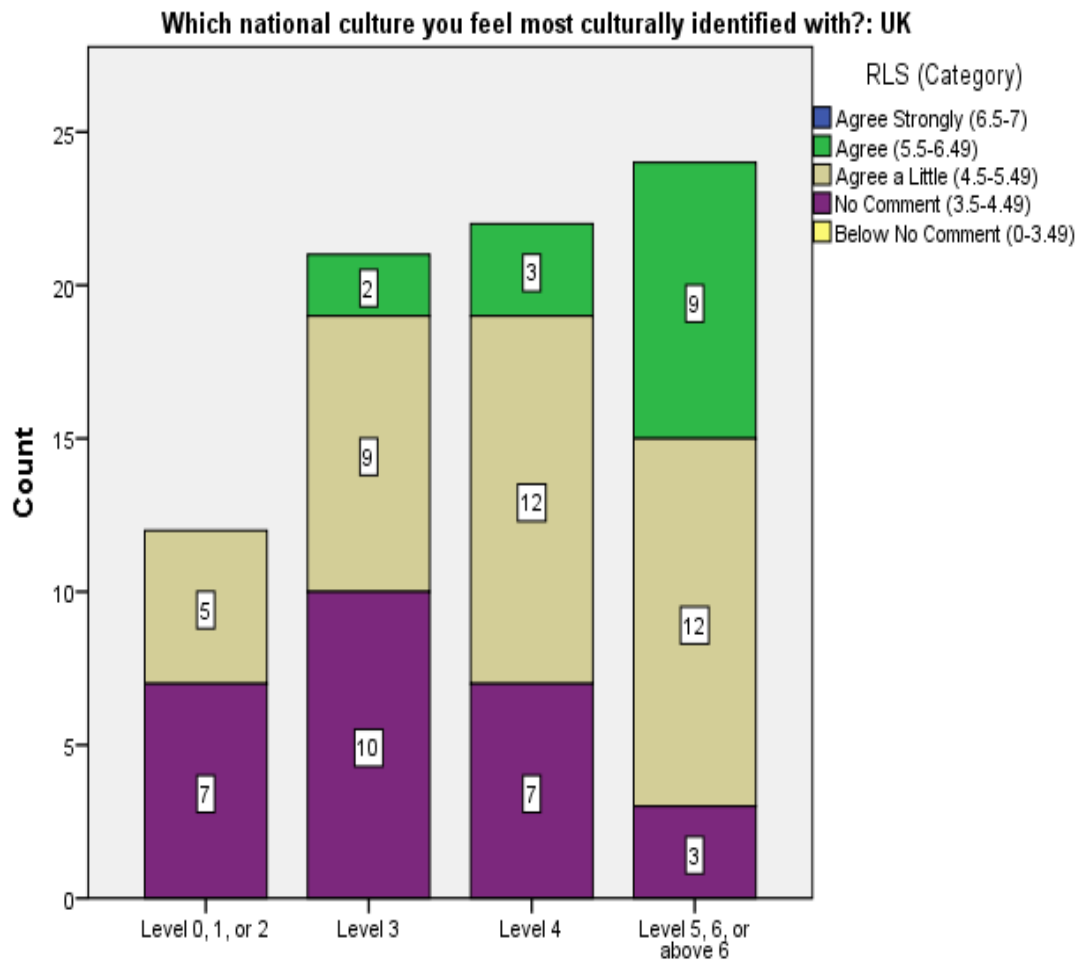


Figure O39. Frequency distribution of the response to 17 leadership statements for participants who identified culturally with the people from the United Kingdom, grouped by seniority level

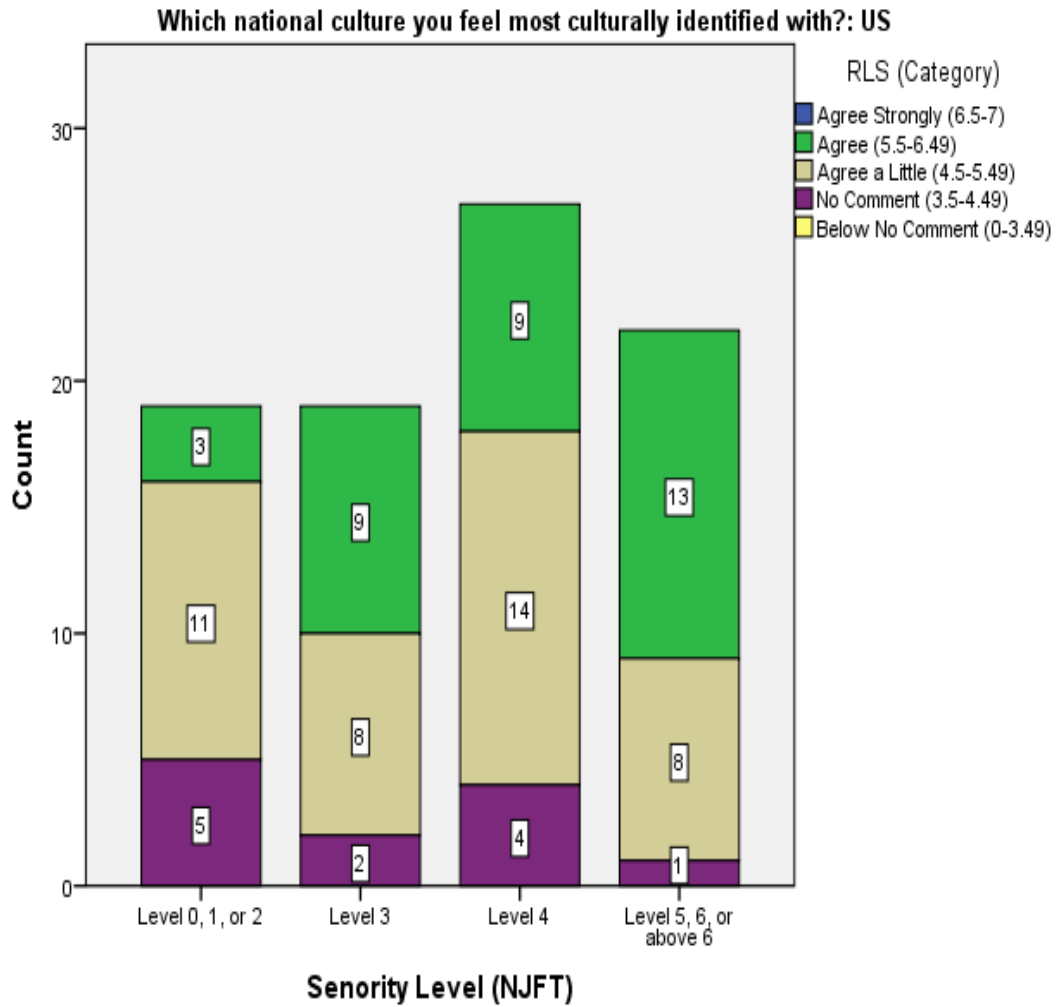


Figure O40. Frequency distribution of the response to 17 leadership statements for participants who identified culturally with the people from the United States, grouped by seniority level

APPENDIX P

Independent t-Test Comparing Mean RLS Scores Between Male and Female

Participants

Table P55

Group Statistics

						95% Confidence	
Are you male or female?		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Median	Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
RLS	Male	306	5.1720	.63449	5.2353	5.1007	5.2434
	Female	82	5.2755	.65195	5.3824	5.1322	5.4187

Table P56

Independent t-test Statistics

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
RLS	Equal variances assumed	.068	.794	-1.303	386	.193	-.10342	.07936
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.283	125.1 94	.202	-.10342	.08062

APPENDIX Q

Descriptive Statistics Regarding Maturity Factors of Survey Participants

Table Q57

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Age	388	100.0%	0	0.0%	388	100.0%
Years of Working	388	100.0%	0	0.0%	388	100.0%
Years of Managing	388	100.0%	0	0.0%	388	100.0%
Years of College Education	388	100.0%	0	0.0%	388	100.0%

Table Q58

Descriptive Statistics of Age

			Statistic	Std. Error
Age	Mean		36.9253	.46416
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	36.0127	
		Upper Bound	37.8379	
	5% Trimmed Mean		36.4530	
	Median		35.0000	
	Variance		83.594	
	Std. Deviation		9.14297	
	Minimum		21.00	
	Maximum		66.00	
	Range		45.00	
	Interquartile Range		13.75	
	Skewness		.687	.124
	Kurtosis		.024	.247

Table Q59

Descriptive Statistics of Years of Working

			Statistic	Std. Error
Years of Working	Mean		13.2629	.46986
	95% Confidence Interval for	Lower Bound	12.3391	
	Mean	Upper Bound	14.1867	
	5% Trimmed Mean		12.7039	
	Median		12.0000	
	Variance		85.657	
	Std. Deviation		9.25510	
	Minimum		.00	
	Maximum		46.00	
	Range		46.00	
	Interquartile Range		14.00	
	Skewness		.820	.124
	Kurtosis		.168	.247

Table Q60

Descriptive Statistics of Years of Managing

			Statistic	Std. Error
Years of Managing	Mean		4.7603	.32682
	95% Confidence Interval for	Lower Bound	4.1177	
	Mean	Upper Bound	5.4029	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.9742	
	Median		2.0000	
	Variance		41.444	
	Std. Deviation		6.43768	
	Minimum		.00	
	Maximum		40.00	
	Range		40.00	
	Interquartile Range		6.00	
	Skewness		2.047	.124
	Kurtosis		5.161	.247

Table Q61

Descriptive Statistics of Years of College Education

			Statistic	Std. Error
Years of College Education	Mean		4.7809	.09525
	95% Confidence Interval for	Lower Bound	4.5937	
	Mean	Upper Bound	4.9682	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.7623	
	Median		5.0000	
	Variance		3.520	
	Std. Deviation		1.87626	
	Minimum		.00	
	Maximum		12.00	
	Range		12.00	
	Interquartile Range		2.00	
	Skewness		.290	.124
	Kurtosis		1.355	.247

Table Q62

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Age	.112	388	.000	.956	388	.000
Years of Working	.128	388	.000	.933	388	.000
Years of Managing	.230	388	.000	.743	388	.000
Years of College Education	.159	388	.000	.945	388	.000

^aLilliefors Significance Correction

Table Q63

Test of Homogeneity of Variance

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Age	Based on Mean	19.156	3	384	.000
	Based on Median	16.489	3	384	.000
	Based on trimmed mean	18.897	3	384	.000
Years of Working	Based on Mean	26.999	3	384	.000
	Based on Median	24.221	3	384	.000
	Based on trimmed mean	26.356	3	384	.000
Years of Managing	Based on Mean	20.266	3	384	.000
	Based on Median	12.306	3	384	.000
	Based on trimmed mean	16.760	3	384	.000
Years of College Education	Based on Mean	1.413	3	384	.238
	Based on Median	1.968	3	384	.118
	Based on trimmed mean	1.292	3	384	.277

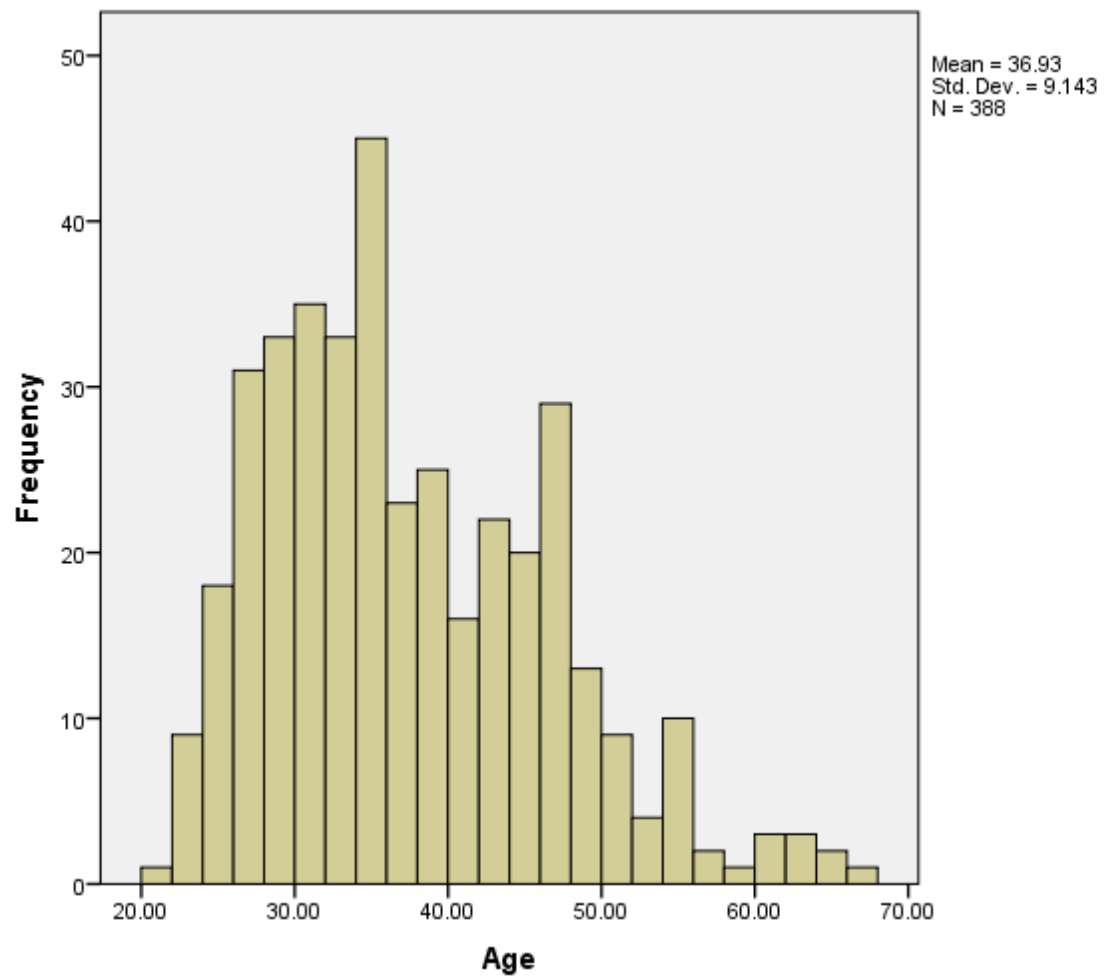


Figure Q41. Histogram of frequency distribution of age

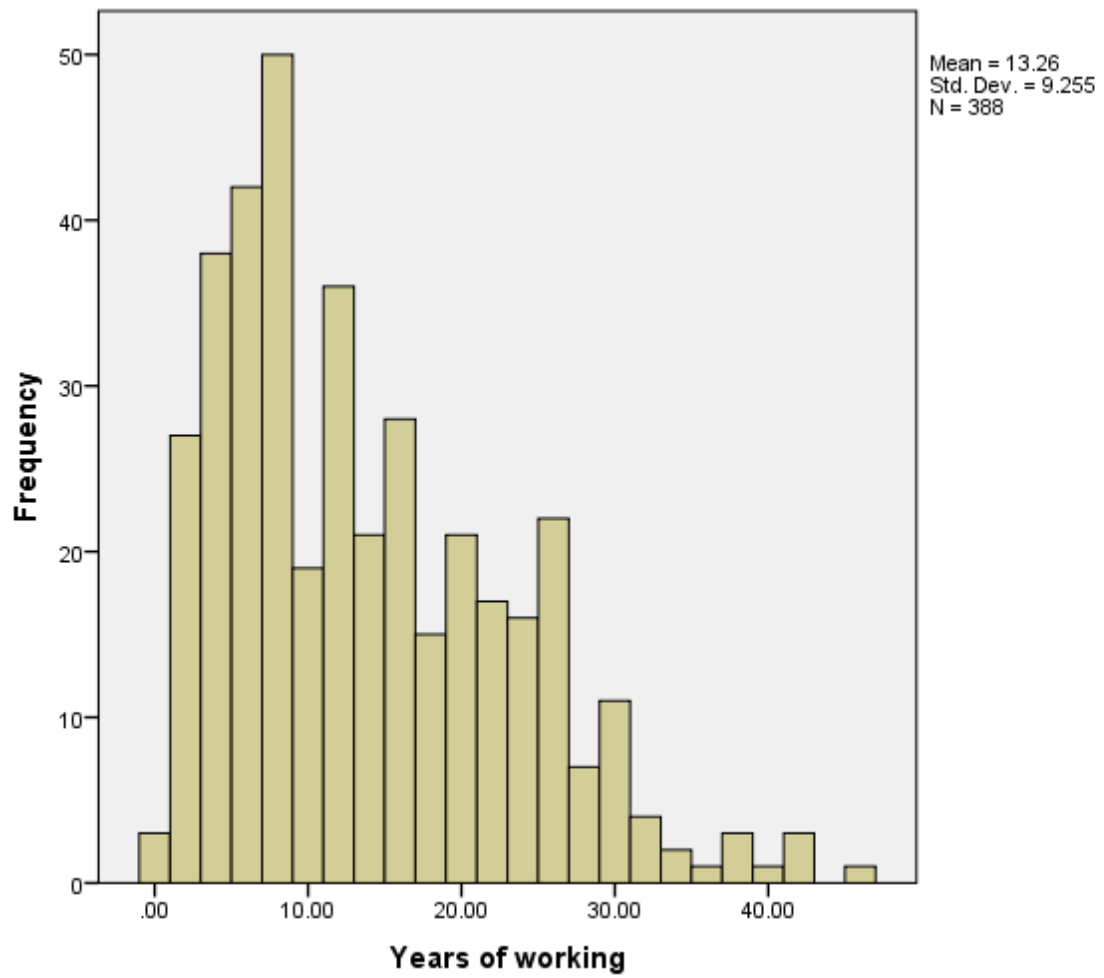


Figure Q42. Histogram of frequency distribution of years of working

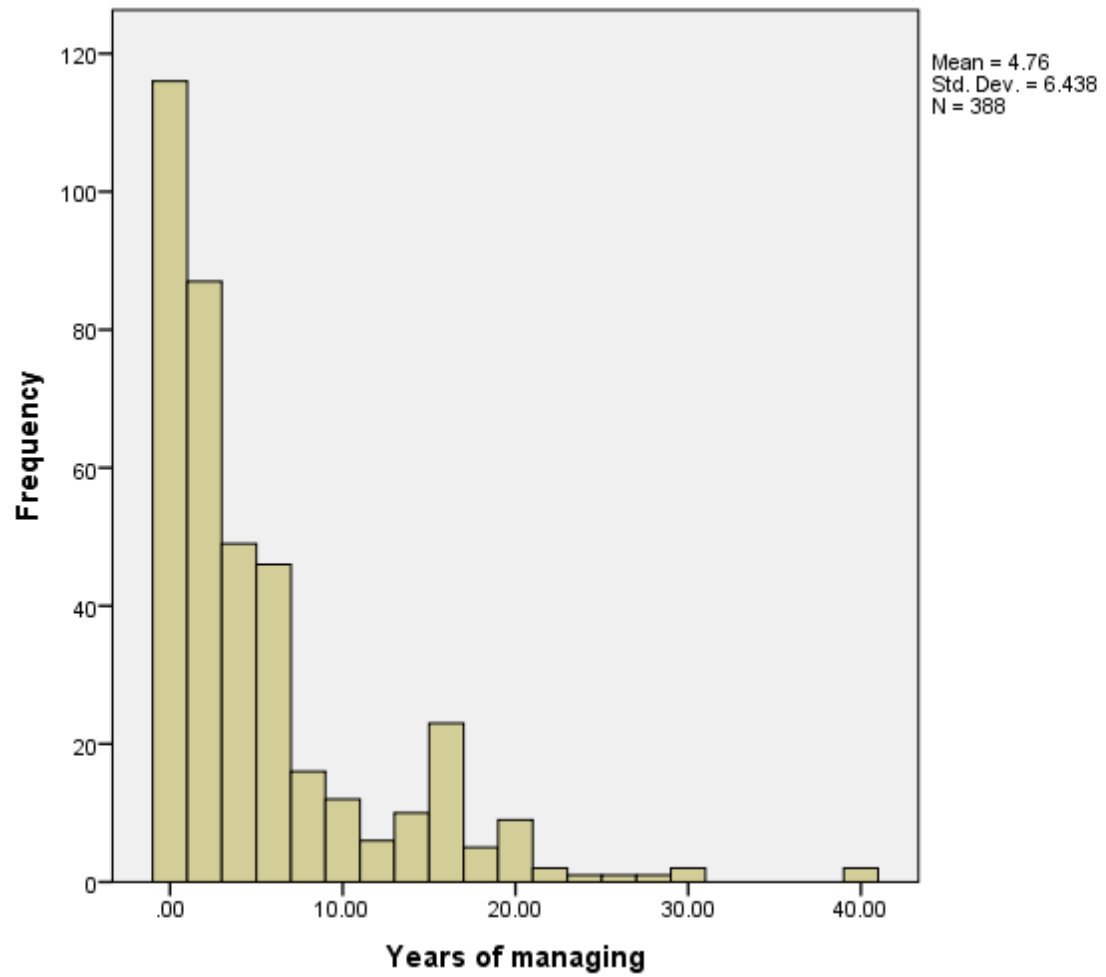


Figure Q43. Histogram of frequency distribution of years of managing

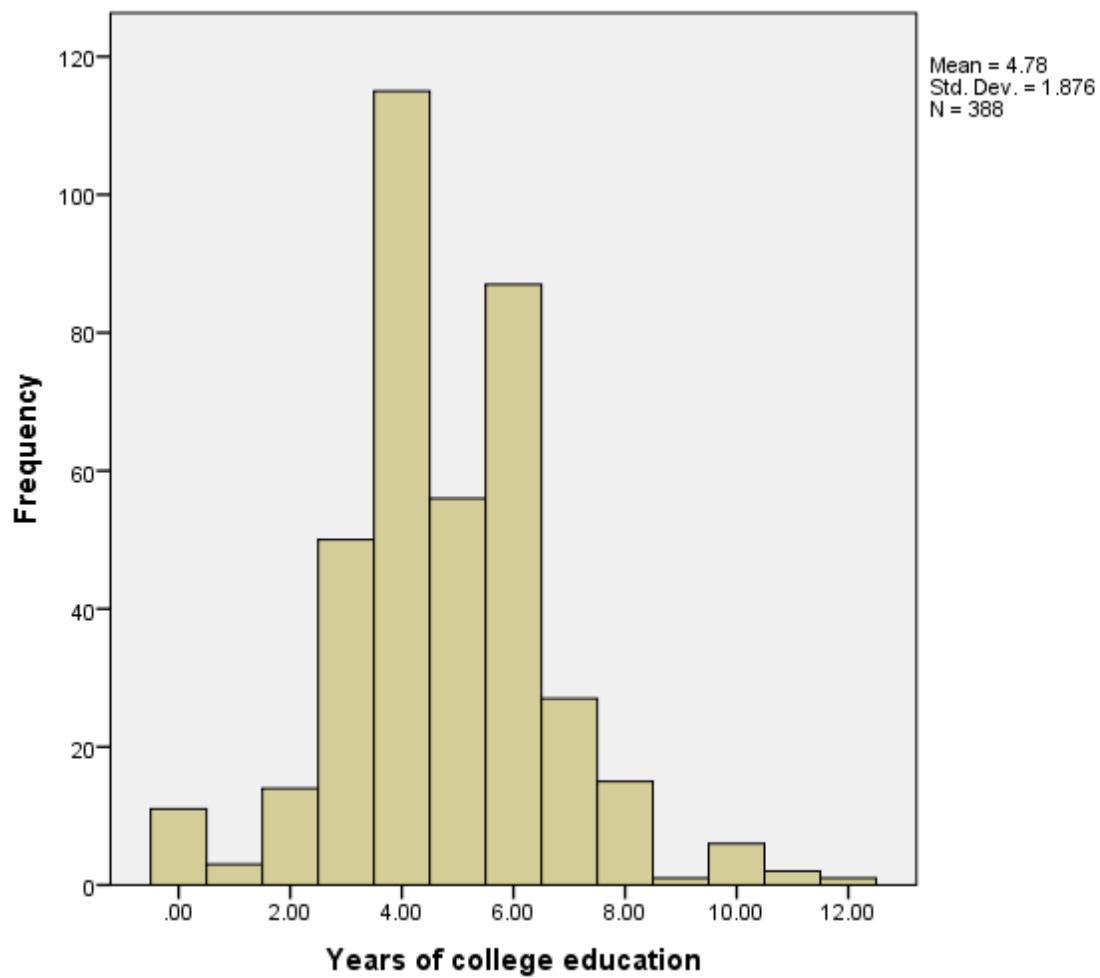


Figure Q44. Histogram of frequency distribution of years of college education

APPENDIX R

Descriptive Statistics of Survey Participants Regarding Maturity

Table R64

Descriptive Statistics for All Survey Participants regarding Maturity

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	388	21.00	66.00	36.9253	9.14297
Years of Working	388	.00	46.00	13.2629	9.25510
Years of Managing	388	.00	40.00	4.7603	6.43768
Years of College Education	388	.00	12.00	4.7809	1.87626
Valid N (listwise)	388				

Table R65

Descriptive Statistics for Survey Participants from India Home Region Regarding Maturity

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	98	22.00	41.00	29.3571	4.03911
Years of Working	98	1.00	20.00	6.3776	3.68758
Years of Managing	98	.00	17.00	2.0306	2.72618
Years of College Education	98	2.00	10.00	5.5510	1.46521

Note. Home region = India.

Table R66

Descriptive Statistics for Survey Participants from Israel Home Region Regarding Maturity

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	123	21.00	64.00	38.1707	9.15236
Years of Working	123	.00	38.00	12.8780	8.94114
Years of Managing	123	.00	29.00	4.4715	6.24280
Years of College Education	123	.00	8.00	4.2683	1.75589

Note. Home region = Israel.

Table R67

Descriptive Statistics for Survey Participants from the United Kingdom Home Region Regarding Maturity

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	77	25.00	65.00	39.7013	8.25588
Years of Working	77	.00	42.00	17.3636	8.70407
Years of Managing	77	.00	39.00	7.1169	7.62609
Years of College Education	77	.00	10.00	4.3896	1.88593

Note. Home region = United Kingdom.

Table R68

Descriptive Statistics for Survey Participants from the United States Home Region Regarding Maturity

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	90	25.00	66.00	41.0889	9.12540
Years of Working	90	2.00	46.00	17.7778	9.78738
Years of Managing	90	.00	40.00	6.1111	7.35221
Years of College Education	90	.00	12.00	4.9778	2.12517

Note. Home region = United States.

APPENDIX S

Descriptive Statistics of Romance of Leadership by Region

Table S69

Case Processing Summary

What is your company home region (where you receive your paycheck from)?			
		N	Percent
RLS	India	98	100.0%
	Israel	123	100.0%
	UK	77	100.0%
	US	90	100.0%

Table S70

Descriptive Statistics for Participants from India Regional Offices

What is your company home region (where you receive your paycheck from)?			Statistic	Std. Error
RLS	India	Mean	5.5300	.05332
		95% Confidence Interval for		
		Mean	Lower Bound	5.4242
			Upper Bound	5.6358
		5% Trimmed Mean	5.5432	
		Median	5.5882	
		Variance	.279	
		Std. Deviation	.52779	
		Minimum	4.18	
		Maximum	6.65	
		Range	2.47	
		Interquartile Range	.66	
		Skewness	-.387	.244
		Kurtosis	.146	.483

Table S71

Descriptive Statistics for Participants from Israel Regional Offices

What is your company home region (where you receive your paycheck from)?			Statistic	Std. Error
RLS	Israel	Mean	5.1138	.05168
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound Upper Bound	5.0115 5.2161
		5% Trimmed Mean	5.1254	
		Median	5.1176	
		Variance	.329	
		Std. Deviation	.57318	
		Minimum	3.65	
		Maximum	6.29	
		Range	2.65	
		Interquartile Range	.71	
		Skewness	-.259	.218
		Kurtosis	-.371	.433

Table S72

Descriptive Statistics of Participants from the United Kingdom Regional Offices

What is your company home region (where you receive your paycheck from)?			Statistic	Std. Error
RLS	UK	Mean	4.7563	.07449
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound Upper Bound	
			4.6079 4.9047	
		5% Trimmed Mean	4.7470	
		Median	4.7059	
		Variance	.427	
		Std. Deviation	.65362	
		Minimum	3.65	
		Maximum	6.12	
		Range	2.47	
		Interquartile Range	1.12	
		Skewness	.213	.274
		Kurtosis	-1.016	.541

Table S73

Descriptive Statistics for Participants from the United States Regional Offices

		What is your company home region (where you receive your paycheck from)?	Statistic	Std. Error
RLS	US	Mean	5.3118	.06169
		95% Confidence Lower Bound	5.1892	
		Interval for Mean Upper Bound	5.4343	
		5% Trimmed Mean	5.3163	
		Median	5.3824	
		Variance	.342	
		Std. Deviation	.58522	
		Minimum	3.94	
		Maximum	6.47	
		Range	2.53	
		Interquartile Range	.90	
		Skewness	-.176	.254
		Kurtosis	-.677	.503

Table S74

Test of Normality

	What is your company home region (where you receive your paycheck from)?	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
RLS	India	.085	98	.079	.981	98	.166
	Israel	.067	123	.200 [*]	.987	123	.310
	UK	.098	77	.063	.962	77	.021
	US	.068	90	.200 [*]	.979	90	.147

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

^a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table S75

Test of Homogeneity of Variance

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
RLS	Based on Mean	2.287	3	384	.078
	Based on Median	2.222	3	384	.085
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2.222	3	382.816	.085
	Based on trimmed mean	2.288	3	384	.078

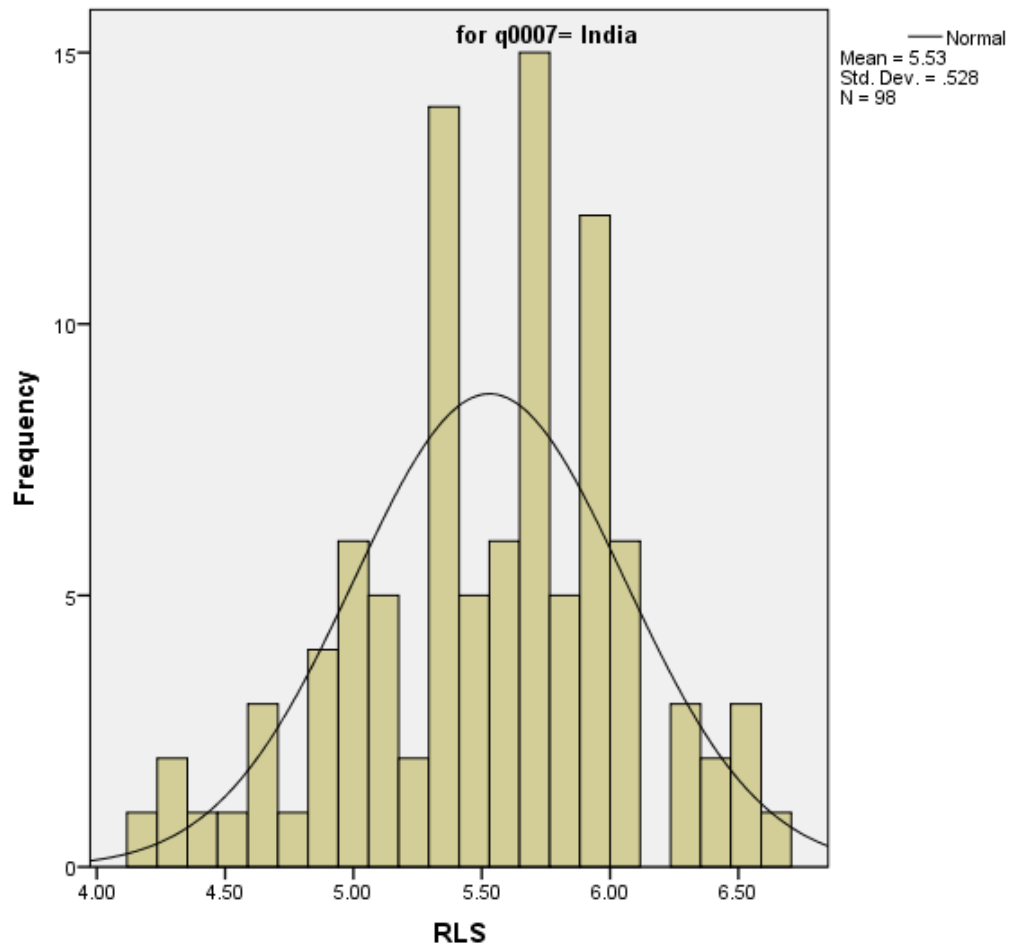


Figure S45. Histogram of romance of leadership of participants from India regional offices

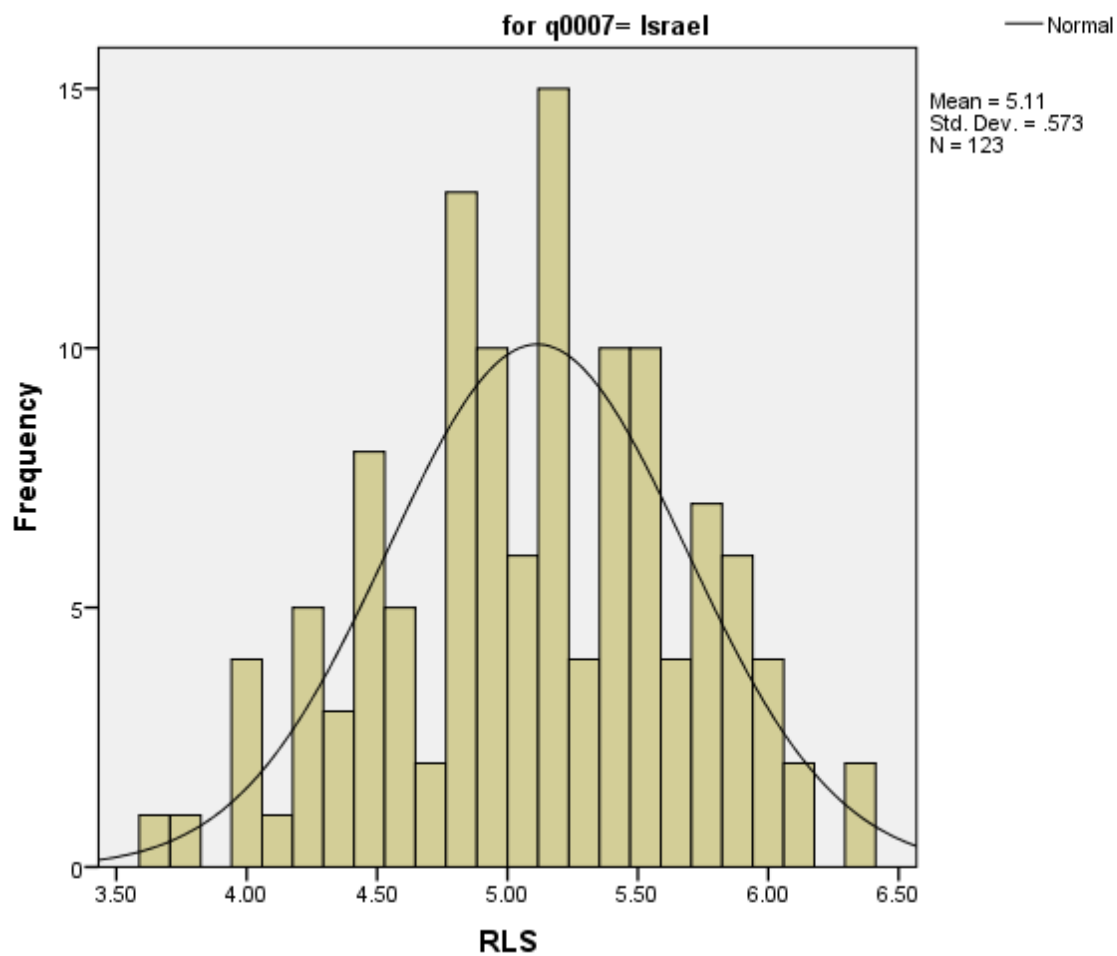


Figure S46. Histogram of romance of leadership of participants from Israel regional offices

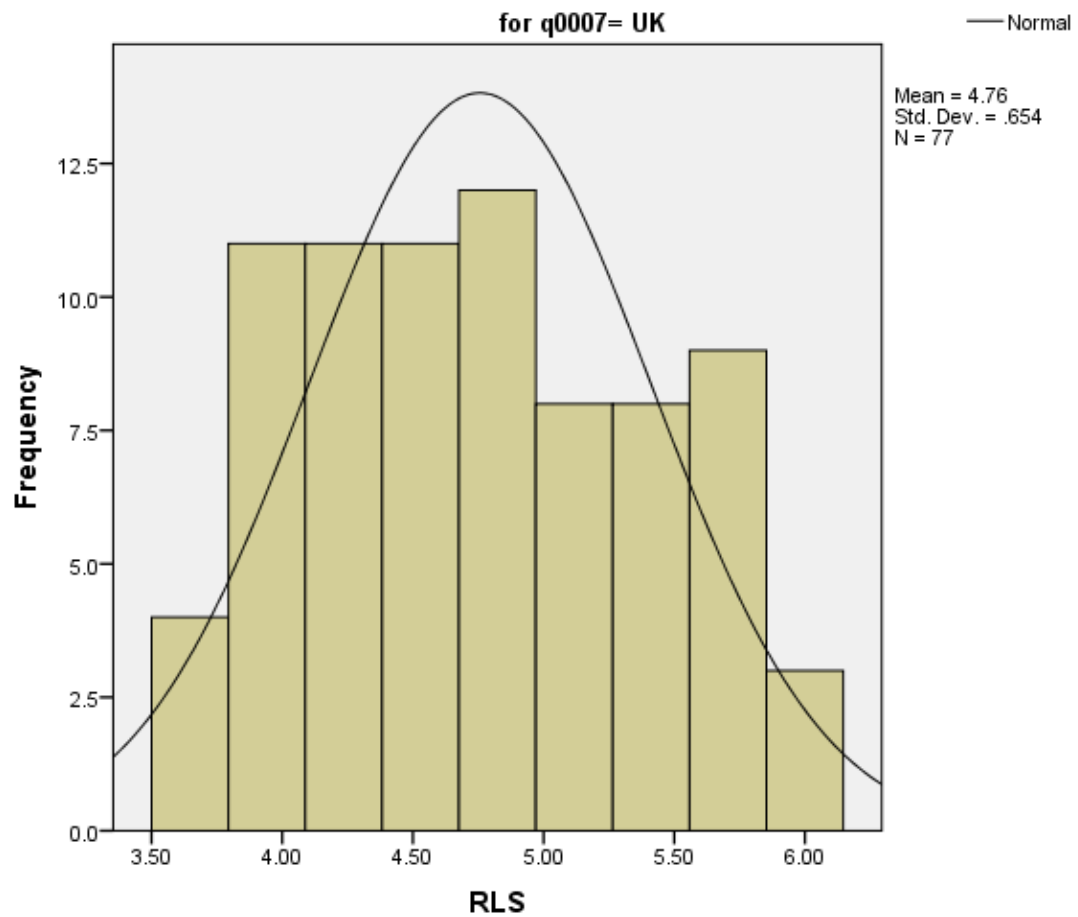


Figure S47. Histogram of romance of leadership of participants from the United Kingdom regional offices

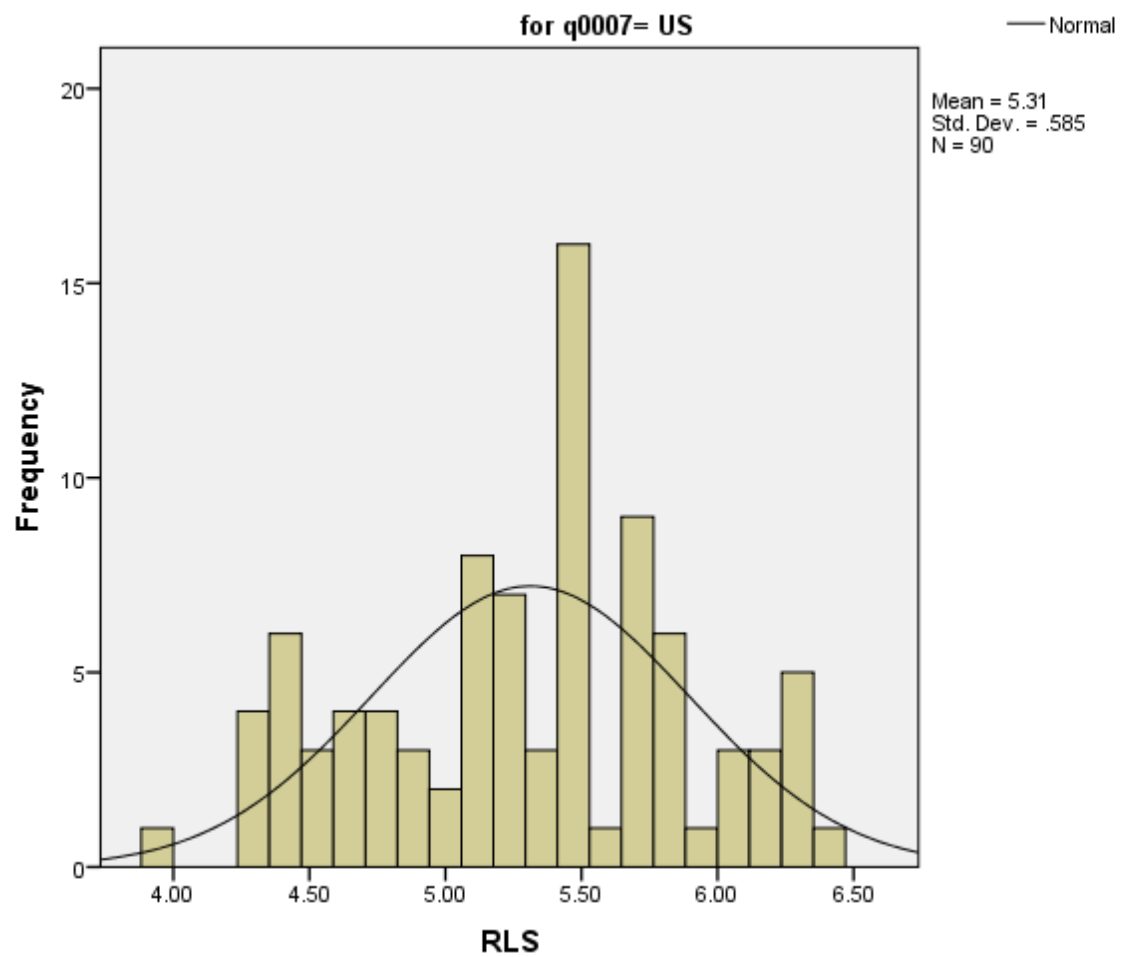


Figure S48. Histogram of romance of leadership of participants from the United States regional offices

APPENDIX T

Frequency Distribution of Responses to the 17 Romance of Leadership Questions

Table T76

Responses to Statement 1 of Romance of Leadership Scale

When it comes right down to it, the quality of leadership is the single most important influence on the functioning of an organization

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	4	1.0	1.0	1.0
Disagree a Little	15	3.9	3.9	4.9
Neither Disagree or Agree	7	1.8	1.8	6.7
Agree a Little	103	26.5	26.5	33.2
Agree	177	45.6	45.6	78.9
Agree Strongly	82	21.1	21.1	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T77

Responses to Statement 2 of Romance of Leadership Scale

Anybody who occupies the top-level leadership positions in an organization has the power to make or break the organization

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree Strongly	5	1.3	1.3	1.3
Disagree	9	2.3	2.3	3.6
Disagree a Little	17	4.4	4.4	8.0
Neither Disagree nor Agree	14	3.6	3.6	11.6
Agree a Little	75	19.3	19.3	30.9
Agree	171	44.1	44.1	75.0
Agree Strongly	97	25.0	25.0	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T78

Responses to Statement 3 of Romance of Leadership Scale

The great amount of time and energy devoted to choosing a leader is justified; because of the important influence that person is likely to have.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	3	.8	.8	.8
Disagree a Little	4	1.0	1.0	1.8
Neither Disagree nor Agree	8	2.1	2.1	3.9
Agree a Little	45	11.6	11.6	15.5
Agree	191	49.2	49.2	64.7
Agree Strongly	137	35.3	35.3	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T79

Responses to Statement 4 of Romance of Leadership Scale

Sooner or later, bad leadership at the top will show up in decreased
organizational performance.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	3	.8	.8	.8
Disagree a Little	2	.5	.5	1.3
Neither Disagree nor Agree	7	1.8	1.8	3.1
Agree a Little	26	6.7	6.7	9.8
Agree	187	48.2	48.2	58.0
Agree Strongly	163	42.0	42.0	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T80

Responses to Statement 5 of Romance of Leadership Scale

High- versus low-quality leadership has a bigger impact on a firm than a favorable
versus unfavorable business environment.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree Strongly	2	.5	.5	.5
Disagree	17	4.4	4.4	4.9
Disagree a Little	34	8.8	8.8	13.7
Neither Disagree nor Agree	58	14.9	14.9	28.6
Agree a Little	103	26.5	26.5	55.2
Agree	130	33.5	33.5	88.7
Agree Strongly	44	11.3	11.3	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T81

Responses to Statement 6 of Romance of Leadership Scale

It is impossible for an organization to do well unless it has high quality leadership at the top.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree Strongly	2	.5	.5	.5
Disagree	19	4.9	4.9	5.4
Disagree a Little	48	12.4	12.4	17.8
Neither Disagree nor Agree	29	7.5	7.5	25.3
Agree a Little	99	25.5	25.5	50.8
Agree	125	32.2	32.2	83.0
Agree Strongly	66	17.0	17.0	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T82

Responses to Statement 7 of Romance of Leadership Scale

A company is only as good or as bad as its leaders.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree Strongly	6	1.5	1.5	1.5
Disagree	40	10.3	10.3	11.9
Disagree a Little	44	11.3	11.3	23.2
Neither Disagree nor Agree	51	13.1	13.1	36.3
Agree a Little	115	29.6	29.6	66.0
Agree	94	24.2	24.2	90.2
Agree Strongly	38	9.8	9.8	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T83

Responses to Statement 8 of Romance of Leadership Scale

With a truly excellent leader, there is almost nothing that an organization
can't accomplish.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree Strongly	9	2.3	2.3	2.3
Disagree	30	7.7	7.7	10.1
Disagree a Little	44	11.3	11.3	21.4
Neither Disagree nor Agree	37	9.5	9.5	30.9
Agree a Little	105	27.1	27.1	58.0
Agree	109	28.1	28.1	86.1
Agree Strongly	54	13.9	13.9	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T84

Responses to Statement 9 of Romance of Leadership Scale

Even in a bad economy, a good leader can prevent a company
from doing poorly.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree Strongly	6	1.5	1.5	1.5
Disagree	28	7.2	7.2	8.8
Disagree a Little	31	8.0	8.0	16.8
Neither Disagree nor Agree	40	10.3	10.3	27.1
Agree a Little	106	27.3	27.3	54.4
Agree	133	34.3	34.3	88.7
Agree Strongly	44	11.3	11.3	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T85

Responses to Statement 10 of Romance of Leadership Scale

Top-level leaders make life-and-death decisions about their organizations.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	7	1.8	1.8	1.8
Disagree a Little	13	3.4	3.4	5.2
Neither Disagree nor Agree	27	7.0	7.0	12.1
Agree a Little	91	23.5	23.5	35.6
Agree	181	46.6	46.6	82.2
Agree Strongly	69	17.8	17.8	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T86

Responses to Statement 11 of Romance of Leadership Scale

It's probably a good idea to find something out about the quality of top-level leaders before investing in a firm.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	1	.3	.3	.3
Disagree a Little	5	1.3	1.3	1.5
Neither Disagree nor Agree	22	5.7	5.7	7.2
Agree a Little	64	16.5	16.5	23.7
Agree	179	46.1	46.1	69.8
Agree Strongly	117	30.2	30.2	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T87

Responses to Statement 12 of Romance of Leadership Scale

When a company is doing poorly, the first place one should look to
is its leaders.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulativ e Percent
Disagree Strongly	1	.3	.3	.3
Disagree	12	3.1	3.1	3.4
Disagree a Little	18	4.6	4.6	8.0
Neither Disagree nor Agree	34	8.8	8.8	16.8
Agree a Little	109	28.1	28.1	44.8
Agree	147	37.9	37.9	82.7
Agree Strongly	67	17.3	17.3	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T88

Responses to Statement 13 of Romance of Leadership Scale

The process by which leaders are selected is extremely important.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	2	.5	.5	.5
Disagree a Little	3	.8	.8	1.3
Neither Disagree nor Agree	15	3.9	3.9	5.2
Agree a Little	47	12.1	12.1	17.3
Agree	192	49.5	49.5	66.8
Agree Strongly	129	33.2	33.2	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T89

Responses to Statement 14 of Romance of Leadership Scale

When the top leaders are good, the organization does well; when the top leaders are bad, the organization does poorly.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree Strongly	3	.8	.8	.8
Disagree	20	5.2	5.2	5.9
Disagree a Little	48	12.4	12.4	18.3
Neither Disagree nor Agree	51	13.1	13.1	31.4
Agree a Little	140	36.1	36.1	67.5
Agree	97	25.0	25.0	92.5
Agree Strongly	29	7.5	7.5	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T90

Responses to Statement 15 of Romance of Leadership Scale

There's nothing as critical to the bottom-line' performance of a company as the quality of its top-level leaders.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree Strongly	4	1.0	1.0	1.0
Disagree	35	9.0	9.0	10.1
Disagree a Little	44	11.3	11.3	21.4
Neither Disagree nor Agree	50	12.9	12.9	34.3
Agree a Little	131	33.8	33.8	68.0
Agree	103	26.5	26.5	94.6
Agree Strongly	21	5.4	5.4	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T91

Responses to Statement 16 of Romance of Leadership Scale

Leadership qualities are among the most highly prized personal traits I can think of.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree Strongly	8	2.1	2.1	2.1
Disagree	30	7.7	7.7	9.8
Disagree a Little	31	8.0	8.0	17.8
Neither Disagree nor Agree	44	11.3	11.3	29.1
Agree a Little	96	24.7	24.7	53.9
Agree	127	32.7	32.7	86.6
Agree Strongly	52	13.4	13.4	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

Table T92

Responses to Statement 17 of Romance of Leadership Scale

No expense should be spared when searching for and selecting a leader.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree Strongly	9	2.3	2.3	2.3
Disagree	40	10.3	10.3	12.6
Disagree a Little	45	11.6	11.6	24.2
Neither Disagree nor Agree	54	13.9	13.9	38.1
Agree a Little	83	21.4	21.4	59.5
Agree	118	30.4	30.4	89.9
Agree Strongly	39	10.1	10.1	100.0
Total	388	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX U

One-way ANOVA Mean Comparison of Romance of Leadership between Regions

Table U93

Descriptive Statistics of Romance of Leadership

RLS								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
India	98	5.5300	.52779	.05332	5.4242	5.6358	4.18	6.65
Israel	123	5.1138	.57318	.05168	5.0115	5.2161	3.65	6.29
UK	77	4.7563	.65362	.07449	4.6079	4.9047	3.65	6.12
US	90	5.3118	.58522	.06169	5.1892	5.4343	3.94	6.47
Total	388	5.1939	.63877	.03243	5.1301	5.2577	3.65	6.65

Table U94

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

RLS					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	27.855	3	9.285	27.416	.000
Within Groups	130.051	384	.339		
Total	157.906	387			

Table U95

ANOVA of Romance of Leadership between Different Regions

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.287	3	384	.078

Table U96

Post-hoc Comparisons of Romance of Leadership between Different Regions

(I) What is your company home region (where you receive your paycheck from)?	(J) What is your company home region (where you receive your paycheck from)?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
India	Israel	.41619*	.07880	.000	.2129	.6195
	UK	.77371*	.08862	.000	.5450	1.0024
	US	.21825	.08496	.052	-.0010	.4375
Israel	India	-.41619*	.07880	.000	-.6195	-.2129
	UK	.35752*	.08457	.000	.1393	.5757
	US	-.19794	.08072	.069	-.4062	.0104
UK	India	-.77371*	.08862	.000	-1.0024	-.5450
	Israel	-.35752*	.08457	.000	-.5757	-.1393
	US	-.55546*	.09034	.000	-.7886	-.3224
US	India	-.21825	.08496	.052	-.4375	.0010
	Israel	.19794	.08072	.069	-.0104	.4062
	UK	.55546*	.09034	.000	.3224	.7886

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Note. Tukey HSD (Dependent variable: RLS)

Table U97

Homogeneous Subsets

What is your company home region (where you receive your paycheck from)?	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
UK	77	4.7563		
Israel	123		5.1138	
US	90		5.3118	5.3118
India	98			5.5300
Sig.		1.000	.092	.051

Note. Tukey HSD

Note. Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Note. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 94.268.

Note. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used.
Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

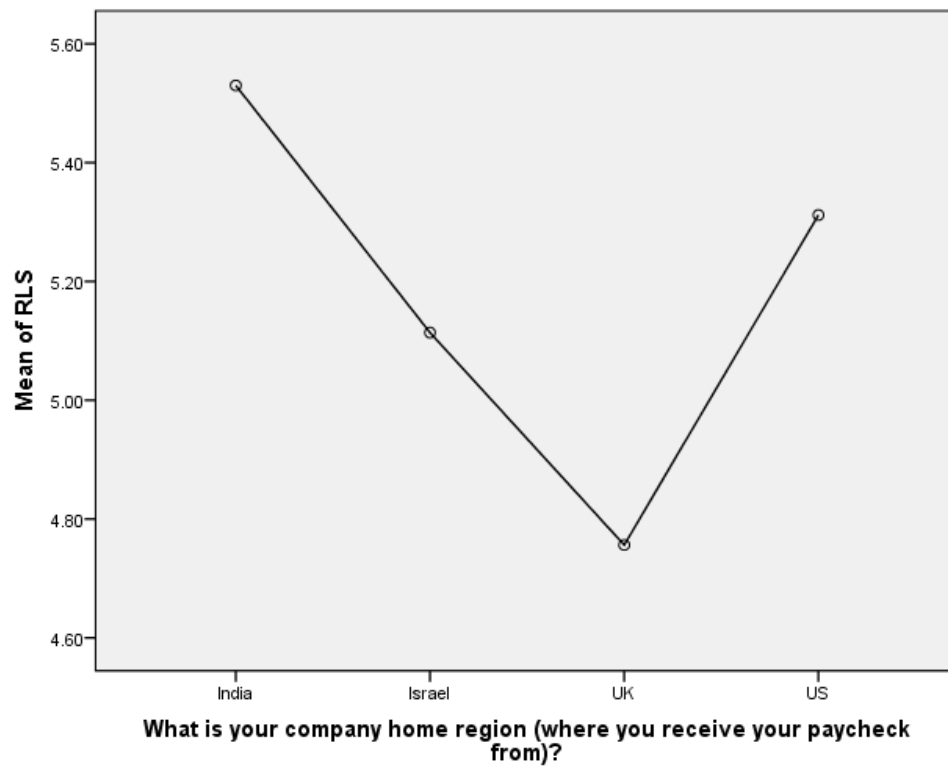


Figure U49. Plot of means of romance of leadership between four regions

APPENDIX V

Descriptive Statistics for Romance of Leadership by Culture Identity

Table V98

Descriptive Statistics of Participants Identified Culturally with People from India

Which national culture you feel most culturally identified with?			Statistic	Std. Error
RLS	India	Mean	5.5111	.05182
		95% Confidence Lower Bound	5.4084	
		Interval for Mean Upper Bound	5.6139	
		5% Trimmed Mean	5.5219	
		Median	5.5882	
		Variance	.277	
		Std. Deviation	.52588	
		Minimum	4.18	
		Maximum	6.65	
		Range	2.47	
		Interquartile Range	.71	
		Skewness	-.329	.238
		Kurtosis	.084	.472

Table V99

Descriptive Statistics of Participants Identified Culturally with People from Israel

Which national culture you feel most culturally identified with?			Statistic	Std. Error
RLS	Israel	Mean	5.1320	.05384
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean		
		Lower Bound	5.0254	
		Upper Bound	5.2386	
		5% Trimmed Mean	5.1412	
		Median	5.1176	
		Variance	.345	
		Std. Deviation	.58729	
		Minimum	3.65	
		Maximum	6.47	
		Range	2.82	
		Interquartile Range	.82	
		Skewness	-.183	.222
		Kurtosis	-.356	.440

Table V100

Descriptive Statistics of Participants Identified Culturally with People from the United Kingdom

Which national culture you feel most culturally identified with?			Statistic	Std. Error
RLS	UK	Mean	4.7789	.07342
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	4.6327	
		Lower Bound	4.9250	
		Upper Bound	4.7714	
		5% Trimmed Mean	4.7647	
		Median	.426	
		Variance	.65260	
		Std. Deviation	3.65	
		Minimum	6.18	
		Maximum	2.53	
		Range	1.12	
		Interquartile Range	.137	
		Skewness	-1.014	
		Kurtosis	.535	

Table V101

Descriptive Statistics of Participants Identified Culturally with People from the United States

Which national culture you feel most culturally identified with?			Statistic	Std. Error
RLS	US	Mean	5.2799	.06406
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean		
		Lower Bound	5.1526	
		Upper Bound	5.4073	
		5% Trimmed Mean	5.2869	
		Median	5.4118	
		Variance	.357	
		Std. Deviation	.59753	
		Minimum	3.94	
		Maximum	6.35	
		Range	2.41	
		Interquartile Range	1.00	
		Skewness	-.230	.258
		Kurtosis	-.792	.511

Table V102

Tests of Normality

Which national culture you feel most culturally identified with?		Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
RLS	India	.063	103	.200 [*]	.984	103	.266
	Israel	.062	119	.200 [*]	.991	119	.631
	UK	.100	79	.047	.966	79	.034
	US	.093	87	.060	.972	87	.055

Note. ^{*}This is a lower bound of the true significance. ^aLilliefors Significance Correction

Table V103

Test of Homogeneity of Variance

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Based on Mean	2.622	3	384	.050
Based on Median	2.492	3	384	.060
RLS Based on Median and with adjusted df	2.492	3	382.401	.060
Based on trimmed mean	2.640	3	384	.049

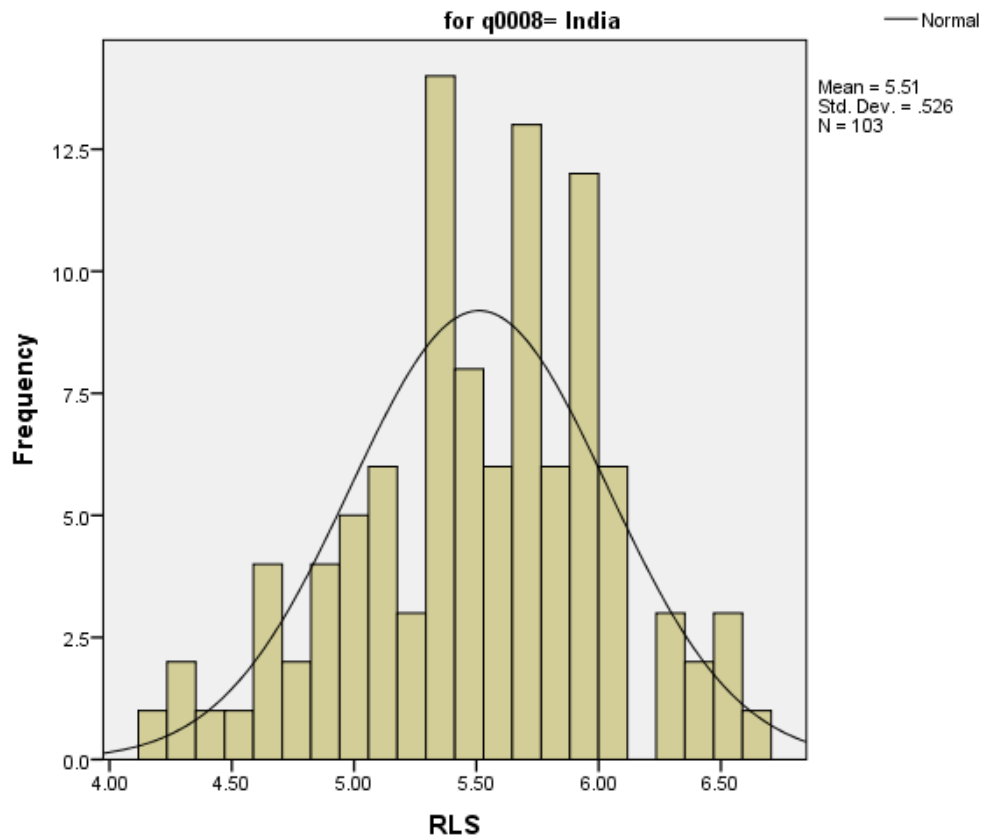


Figure V50. Histogram of romance of leadership scores of participants who identified themselves culturally with people of India

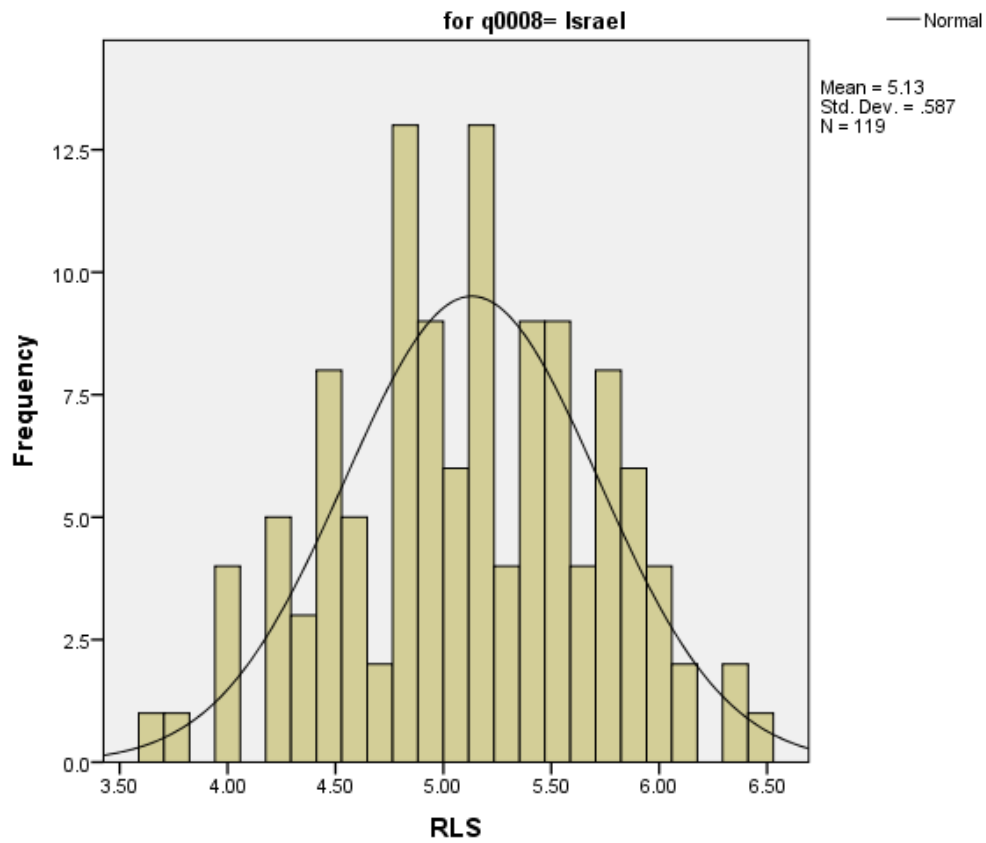


Figure V51. Histogram of romance of leadership scores of participants who identified themselves culturally with people of Israel

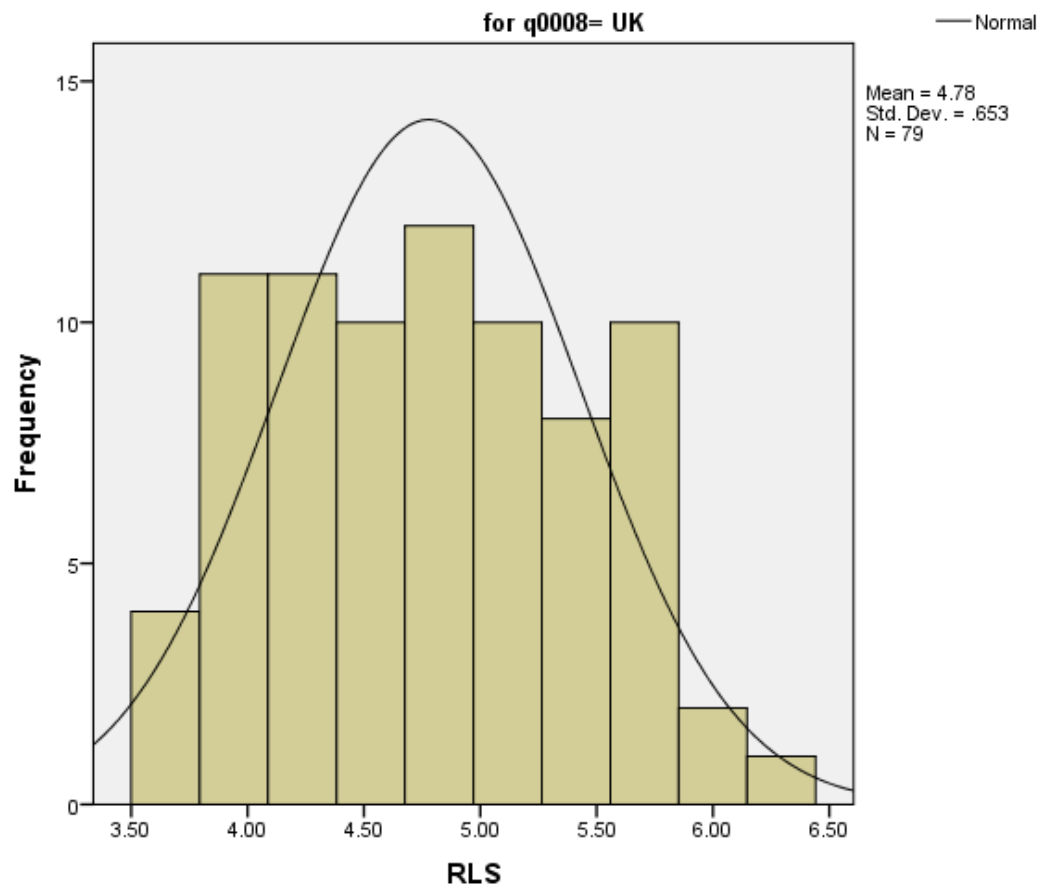


Figure V52. Histogram of romance of leadership scores of participants who identified themselves culturally with people of the United Kingdom

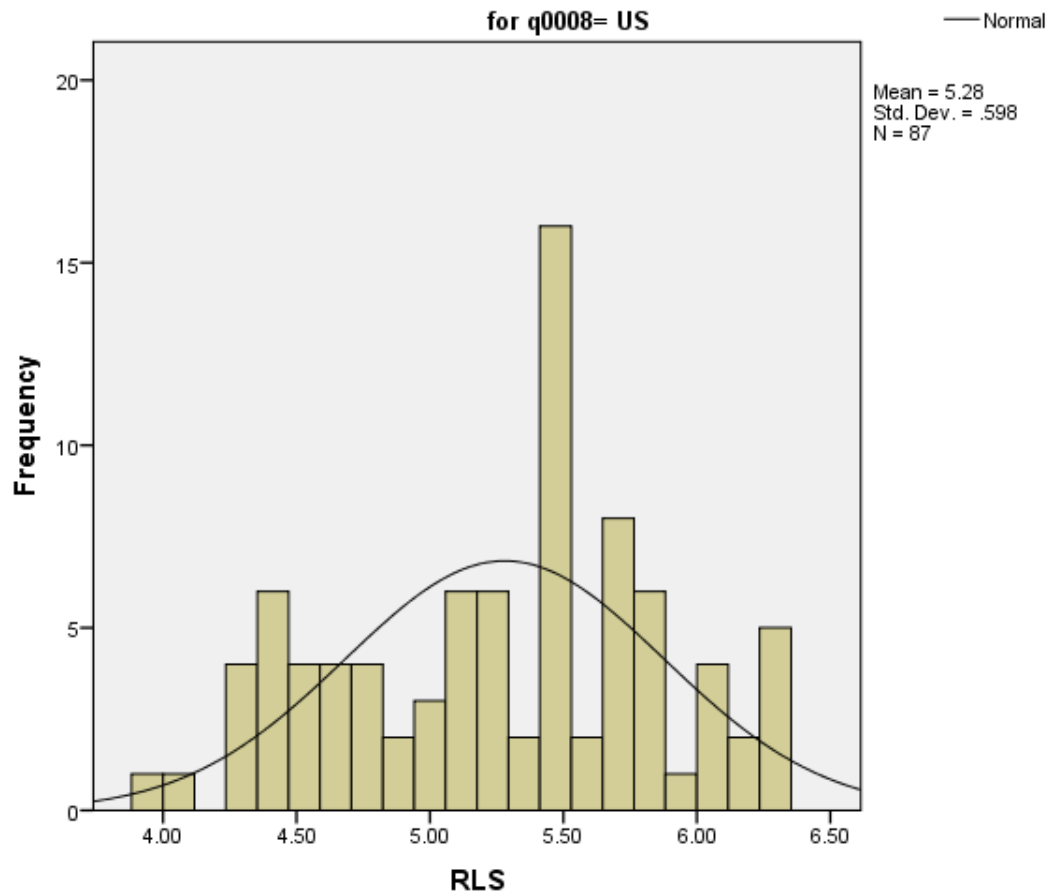


Figure V53. Histogram of romance of leadership scores of participants who identified themselves culturally with people of the United States

APPENDIX W

One-way ANOVA Means Comparison of Romance of Leadership between National Cultures

Table W104

Descriptive Statistics of Participants across Different National Cultures

RLS								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
India	103	5.5111	.52588	.05182	5.4084	5.6139	4.18	6.65
Israel	119	5.1320	.58729	.05384	5.0254	5.2386	3.65	6.47
UK	79	4.7789	.65260	.07342	4.6327	4.9250	3.65	6.18
US	87	5.2799	.59753	.06406	5.1526	5.4073	3.94	6.35
Total	388	5.1939	.63877	.03243	5.1301	5.2577	3.65	6.65

Table W105

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

RLS			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.622	3	384	.050

Table W106

ANOVA

RLS					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	25.075	3	8.358	24.163	.000
Within Groups	132.832	384	.346		
Total	157.906	387			

Table W107

Post-hoc Tests

(I) Which national culture you feel most culturally identified with?	(J) Which national culture you feel most culturally identified with?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
India	Israel	.37915 [*]	.07915	.000	.1749	.5834
	UK	.73228 [*]	.08796	.000	.5053	.9592
	US	.23122 [*]	.08564	.036	.0102	.4522
Israel	India	-.37915 [*]	.07915	.000	-.5834	-.1749
	UK	.35313 [*]	.08536	.000	.1329	.5734
	US	-.14794	.08296	.283	-.3620	.0661
UK	India	-.73228 [*]	.08796	.000	-.9592	-.5053
	Israel	-.35313 [*]	.08536	.000	-.5734	-.1329
	US	-.50107 [*]	.09140	.000	-.7369	-.2652
US	India	-.23122 [*]	.08564	.036	-.4522	-.0102
	Israel	.14794	.08296	.283	-.0661	.3620
	UK	.50107 [*]	.09140	.000	.2652	.7369

Note. Tukey's HSD (Dependent variable: RLS)

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table W108

Homogeneous Subsets

Which national culture you feel most culturally identified with?	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
UK	79	4.7789		
Israel	119		5.1320	
US	87		5.2799	
India	103			5.5111
Sig.		1.000	.309	1.000

Note. Tukey's HSD (Dependent variable: RLS)

Note. Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Note. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 94.642.

Note. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

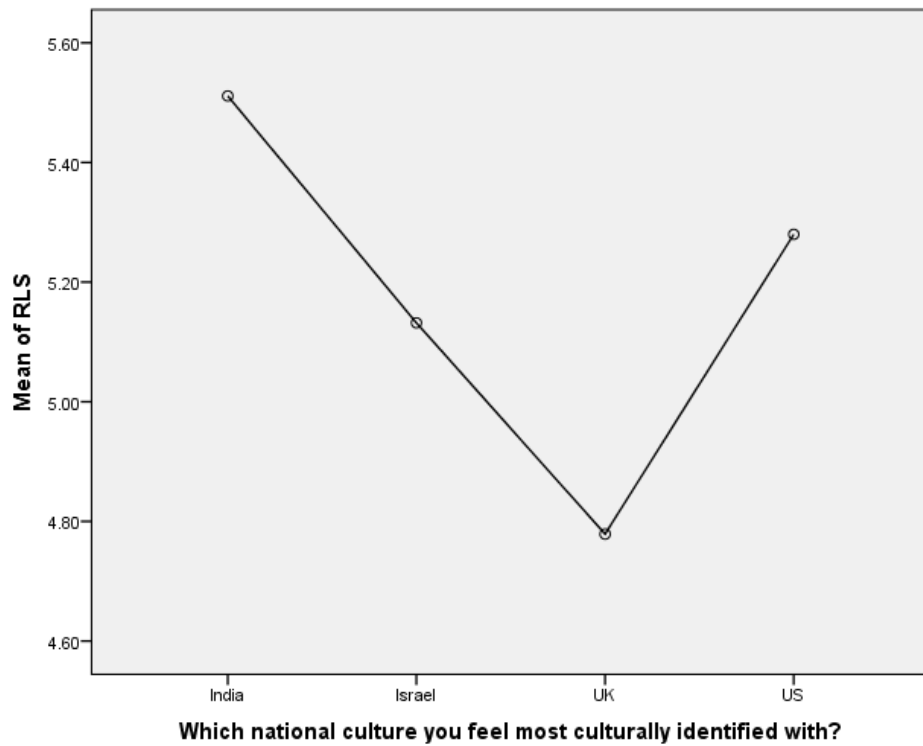


Figure W54. Comparison of means of romance of leadership scores between national cultures

APPENDIX X

Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis with Home Region as a Predictor

Variable

Table X109

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
RLS	5.1939	.63877	388
Extraversion	37.5773	7.00068	388
Openness	58.4948	6.51038	388
Seniority Level (JFT)	3.3479	1.50454	388
India vs. UK (Region)	.2526	.43505	388
Israel vs. UK (Region)	.3170	.46591	388
US vs. UK (Region)	.2320	.42263	388
Agreeableness	50.1830	6.07320	388
Neuroticism	24.8773	7.53937	388
Age	36.9253	9.14297	388
Years of Working	13.2629	9.25510	388
Years of Managing	4.7603	6.43768	388
Conscientiousness	50.3357	6.26820	388
Gender	.2113	.40879	388

Table X110

Variables Entered/Removed from Model

Mode 1	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Openness, Extraversion ^a	.	Enter
2	Seniority Level (JFT) ^a	.	Enter
3	Israel vs. UK (Region), US vs. UK (Region), India vs. UK (Region) ^a	.	Enter

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

^a. All requested variables entered.

Table X111

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.364 ^a	.133	.128	.59646	.133	29.428	2	385	.000
2	.394 ^b	.156	.149	.58925	.023	10.471	1	384	.001
3	.555 ^c	.308	.297	.53554	.152	27.964	3	381	.000

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

^a Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion

^b Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion, Seniority Level (JFT)

^c Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion, Seniority Level (JFT), Israel vs. UK (Region), US vs. UK (Region), India vs. UK (Region)

Table X112

ANOVA

	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 ^a	Regression	20.938	2	10.469	29.428	.000
	Residual	136.968	385	.356		
	Total	157.906	387			
2 ^b	Regression	24.574	3	8.191	23.591	.000
	Residual	133.332	384	.347		
	Total	157.906	387			
3 ^c	Regression	48.635	6	8.106	28.263	.000
	Residual	109.272	381	.287		
	Total	157.906	387			

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

^a Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion

^b Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion, Seniority Level (JFT)

^c Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion, Seniority Level (JFT), Israel vs. UK (Region), US vs. UK (Region), India vs. UK (Region)

Table X113

Coefficients of Regression

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.602	.284		12.703	.000	3.045	4.160					
	Extraversion	.030	.005	.328	6.478	.000	.021	.039	.356	.313	.307	.880	1.137
	Openness	.008	.005	.081	1.610	.108	-.002	.018	.195	.082	.076	.880	1.137
2	(Constant)	3.420	.286		11.965	.000	2.858	3.982					
	Extraversion	.030	.005	.330	6.597	.000	.021	.039	.356	.319	.309	.880	1.137
	Openness	.007	.005	.074	1.488	.138	-.002	.017	.195	.076	.070	.878	1.139
	Seniority Level (JFT)	.064	.020	.152	3.236	.001	.025	.104	.156	.163	.152	.998	1.002
3	(Constant)	3.056	.268		11.414	.000	2.530	3.582					
	Extraversion	.020	.004	.218	4.613	.000	.011	.028	.356	.230	.197	.813	1.231
	Openness	.010	.005	.106	2.299	.022	.002	.019	.195	.117	.098	.861	1.162
	Seniority Level (JFT)	.103	.019	.242	5.411	.000	.065	.140	.156	.267	.231	.909	1.100
	India vs UK (Region)	.787	.087	.536	9.033	.000	.616	.958	.306	.420	.385	.516	1.938
	Israel vs UK (Region)	.402	.079	.293	5.092	.000	.247	.557	-.086	.252	.217	.547	1.827
	US vs UK (Region)	.491	.084	.325	5.868	.000	.327	.656	.102	.288	.250	.592	1.690

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

Table X114

Casewise Diagnostics

Case Number	Std. Residual	RLS	Predicted Value	Residual
13	-2.122	4.24	5.3720	-1.13667
26	-2.264	4.35	5.5654	-1.21250
39	-2.375	4.47	5.7423	-1.27174
81	-2.724	4.24	5.6944	-1.45907
96	2.079	6.65	5.5336	1.11345
108	-2.319	3.94	5.1832	-1.24198
159	-2.703	3.65	5.0947	-1.44760
164	-2.078	4.24	5.3479	-1.11264
203	2.332	6.12	4.8685	1.24911
213	-2.032	3.76	4.8527	-1.08797
276	-2.583	3.65	5.0302	-1.38311
294	2.336	5.94	4.6902	1.25101
302	2.063	6.47	5.3656	1.10498
322	2.091	6.24	5.1156	1.11966
341	-2.025	3.94	5.0256	-1.08441
369	-2.362	4.24	5.5001	-1.26482

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

APPENDIX Y

Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis with Culture Identity as Predictor

Variable

Table Y115

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
RLS	5.1939	.63877	388
Extraversion	37.5773	7.00068	388
Openness	58.4948	6.51038	388
Seniority Level (JFT)	3.3479	1.50454	388
India vs. UK (Culture)	.2655	.44215	388
Israel vs. UK (Culture)	.3067	.46172	388
US vs. UK (Culture)	.2242	.41761	388
Agreeableness	50.1830	6.07320	388
Neuroticism	24.8773	7.53937	388
Age	36.9253	9.14297	388
Years of Working	13.2629	9.25510	388
Years of Managing	4.7603	6.43768	388
Conscientiousness	50.3357	6.26820	388
Gender	.2113	.40879	388

Table Y116

Variables Entered/Removed from Model

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Openness, Extraversion ^a	.	Enter
2	Seniority Level (JFT) ^a	.	Enter
3	Israel vs UK (Culture), US vs UK (Culture), India vs UK (Culture) ^a	.	Enter

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

^a. All requested variables entered.

Table Y117

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.364 ^a	.133	.128	.59646	.133	29.428	2	385	.000
2	.394 ^b	.156	.149	.58925	.023	10.471	1	384	.001
3	.537 ^c	.289	.277	.54298	.133	23.746	3	381	.000

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

^a Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion

^b Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion, Seniority Level (JFT)

^c Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion, Seniority Level (JFT), Israel vs. UK (Culture), US vs. UK (Culture), India vs. UK (Culture)

Table Y118

ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 ^a	Regression	20.938	2	10.469	29.428	.000
	Residual	136.968	385	.356		
	Total	157.906	387			
2 ^b	Regression	24.574	3	8.191	23.591	.000
	Residual	133.332	384	.347		
	Total	157.906	387			
3 ^c	Regression	45.577	6	7.596	25.765	.000
	Residual	112.329	381	.295		
	Total	157.906	387			

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

^a Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion

^b Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion, Seniority Level (JFT)

^c Predictors: (Constant), Openness, Extraversion, Seniority Level (JFT), Israel vs. UK (Culture), US vs. UK (Culture), India vs. UK (Culture)

Table Y119

Coefficients of Regression

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence		Correlations			Collinearity	
		Coefficients		Coefficients			Interval for B		Zero-order	Partial	Part	Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound				Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.602	.284		12.703	.000	3.045	4.160					
	Extraversion	.030	.005	.328	6.478	.000	.021	.039	.356	.313	.307	.880	1.137
	Openness	.008	.005	.081	1.610	.108	-.002	.018	.195	.082	.076	.880	1.137
2	(Constant)	3.420	.286		11.965	.000	2.858	3.982					
	Extraversion	.030	.005	.330	6.597	.000	.021	.039	.356	.319	.309	.880	1.137
	Openness	.007	.005	.074	1.488	.138	-.002	.017	.195	.076	.070	.878	1.139
	Seniority Level (JFT)	.064	.020	.152	3.236	.001	.025	.104	.156	.163	.152	.998	1.002
3	(Constant)	3.136	.270		11.630	.000	2.606	3.666					
	Extraversion	.019	.004	.209	4.314	.000	.010	.028	.356	.216	.186	.796	1.257
	Openness	.010	.005	.098	2.109	.036	.001	.019	.195	.107	.091	.872	1.147
	Seniority Level (JFT)	.107	.019	.252	5.551	.000	.069	.145	.156	.274	.240	.907	1.103
	India vs. UK (Culture)	.741	.088	.513	8.397	.000	.568	.915	.299	.395	.363	.500	2.000
	Israel vs. UK (Culture)	.406	.081	.293	5.038	.000	.248	.564	-.065	.250	.218	.551	1.816
	US vs. UK (Culture)	.454	.086	.297	5.304	.000	.286	.622	.072	.262	.229	.597	1.676

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

Table Y120

Casewise Diagnostics

Case Number	Std. Residual	RLS	Predicted Value	Residual
13	-2.018	4.24	5.3311	-1.09580
26	-2.157	4.35	5.5240	-1.17101
39	-2.261	4.47	5.6981	-1.22752
75	2.066	5.76	4.6431	1.12159
81	-2.601	4.24	5.6478	-1.41254
96	2.075	6.65	5.5204	1.12663
108	-2.298	3.94	5.1889	-1.24767
159	-2.723	3.65	5.1257	-1.47860
164	-2.080	4.24	5.3645	-1.12919
203	2.256	6.12	4.8927	1.22500
213	-2.064	3.76	4.8853	-1.12057
223	-2.058	4.59	5.7057	-1.11743
276	-2.598	3.65	5.0578	-1.41078
294	2.271	5.94	4.7082	1.23294
302	2.181	6.47	5.2863	1.18430
322	2.099	6.24	5.0958	1.13951
369	-2.295	4.24	5.4812	-1.24593

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

APPENDIX Z

Correlational Statistics of Relationships between Personality Trait Factors and Romance of Leadership, Controlling for Seniority Level (NJFT)

Table Z121

Correlational Matrix for All Company Participants of Seniority Levels (NJFT) 0, 1, and 2

		RLS	E	A	N	C	O
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.332**	.231*	-.049	.163	.162
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.010	.592	.072	.075
Extraversion (E)	Pearson Correlation	.332**	1	.333**	-.374**	.462**	.380**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
Agreeableness (A)	Pearson Correlation	.231*	.333**	1	-.574**	.444**	.193*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.000		.000	.000	.033
Neuroticism (N)	Pearson Correlation	-.049	-.374**	-.574**	1	-.461**	-.397**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.592	.000	.000		.000	.000
Conscientiousness (C)	Pearson Correlation	.163	.462**	.444**	-.461**	1	.296**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.072	.000	.000	.000		.001
Openness (O)	Pearson Correlation	.162	.380**	.193*	-.397**	.296**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.075	.000	.033	.000	.001	

Note. $N = 122$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table Z122

Correlational Matrix for All Company Participants of Seniority Level (NJFT) 3

		RLS	E	A	N	C	O
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.387**	-.017	-.132	.258*	.291**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.869	.207	.013	.005
Extraversion (E)	Pearson Correlation	.387**	1	.213*	-.201	.289**	.361**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.041	.053	.005	.000
Agreeableness (A)	Pearson Correlation	-.017	.213*	1	-.393**	.532**	.126
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.869	.041		.000	.000	.227
Neuroticism (N)	Pearson Correlation	-.132	-.201	-.393**	1	-.474**	-.043
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.207	.053	.000		.000	.681
Conscientiousness (C)	Pearson Correlation	.258*	.289**	.532**	-.474**	1	.284**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	.005	.000	.000		.006
Openness (O)	Pearson Correlation	.291**	.361**	.126	-.043	.284**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.000	.227	.681	.006	

Note. $N = 93$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table Z123

Correlational Matrix for All Company Participants of Seniority Level (NJFT) 4

		RLS	E	A	N	C	O
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.387**	.198	-.266**	.282**	.246*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.054	.009	.006	.016
Extraversion (E)	Pearson Correlation	.387**	1	.056	-.270**	.357**	.351**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.591	.008	.000	.000
Agreeableness (A)	Pearson Correlation	.198	.056	1	-.452**	.304**	.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.591		.000	.003	.871
Neuroticism (N)	Pearson Correlation	-.266**	-.270**	-.452**	1	-.355**	-.182
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	.008	.000		.000	.077
Conscientiousness (C)	Pearson Correlation	.282**	.357**	.304**	-.355**	1	.168
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.000	.003	.000		.104
Openness (O)	Pearson Correlation	.246*	.351**	.017	-.182	.168	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.016	.000	.871	.077	.104	

Note. $N = 95$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table Z124

Correlational Matrix for All Company Participants of Seniority Levels (NJFT) 5 and above

		RLS	E	A	N	C	O
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.326**	.175	-.118	.147	-.025
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004	.124	.305	.200	.827
Extraversion (E)	Pearson Correlation	.326**	1	.287*	-.317**	.070	.201
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004		.011	.005	.544	.078
Agreeableness (A)	Pearson Correlation	.175	.287*	1	-.578**	.485**	.036
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.124	.011		.000	.000	.757
Neuroticism (N)	Pearson Correlation	-.118	-.317**	-.578**	1	-.508**	-.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.305	.005	.000		.000	.548
Conscientiousness (C)	Pearson Correlation	.147	.070	.485**	-.508**	1	.084
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.200	.544	.000	.000		.467
Openness (O)	Pearson Correlation	-.025	.201	.036	-.069	.084	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.827	.078	.757	.548	.467	

Note. $N = 78$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

APPENDIX AA

Correlational Statistics of Relationships between Personality Trait Factors and Romance of Leadership, Controlling for Gender

Table AA125

Correlational Matrix for Male Participants

		RLS	E	A	N	C	O
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.332**	.116*	-.131*	.219**	.166**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.043	.022	.000	.004
Extraversion (E)	Pearson Correlation	.332**	1	.198**	-.339**	.329**	.371**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
Agreeableness (A)	Pearson Correlation	.116*	.198**	1	-.521**	.465**	.151**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.043	.000		.000	.000	.008
Neuroticism (N)	Pearson Correlation	-.131*	-.339**	-.521**	1	-.499**	-.210**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.022	.000	.000		.000	.000
Conscientiousness (C)	Pearson Correlation	.219**	.329**	.465**	-.499**	1	.225**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
Openness (O)	Pearson Correlation	.166**	.371**	.151**	-.210**	.225**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.000	.008	.000	.000	

Note. $N = 306$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Table AA126

Correlational Matrix for Female Participants

		RLS	E	A	N	C	O
RLS	Pearson Correlation	1	.419**	.171	-.130	.095	.360**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.125	.245	.395	.001
Extraversion (E)	Pearson Correlation	.419**	1	.257*	-.233*	.167	.477**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.020	.035	.134	.000
Agreeableness (A)	Pearson Correlation	.171	.257*	1	-.480**	.301**	-.014
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.125	.020		.000	.006	.903
Neuroticism (N)	Pearson Correlation	-.130	-.233*	-.480**	1	-.295**	-.100
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.245	.035	.000		.007	.373
Conscientiousness (C)	Pearson Correlation	.095	.167	.301**	-.295**	1	.267*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.395	.134	.006	.007		.015
Openness (O)	Pearson Correlation	.360**	.477**	-.014	-.100	.267*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.903	.373	.015	

Note. $N = 82$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

APPENDIX AB

Multiple Regression Analysis of Personality Trait Factors and Romance of Leadership for Male Participants

Table AB127

Descriptive Statistics of Male Participants

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
RLS	5.1720	.63449	306
Extraversion	36.8922	6.85863	306
Agreeableness	49.9379	6.03591	306
Neuroticism	24.5686	7.58537	306
Conscientiousness	50.0098	6.33361	306
Openness	59.1111	6.25843	306

Table AB128

Variables Entered/Removed from Model

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Extraversion		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F- to-enter \leq .050, Probability-of-F- to-remove \geq .100).
2	Conscientiousness		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F- to-enter \leq .050, Probability-of-F- to-remove \geq .100).

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

Table AB129

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
	Gender = Male				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.332 ^a	.110	.107	.59959	.110	37.539	1	304	.000
2	.351 ^b	.123	.118	.59599	.014	4.681	1	303	.031

^a Predictors: (Constant), Extraversion^b Predictors: (Constant), Extraversion, Conscientiousness

Table AB130

ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 ^a	Regression	13.496	1	13.496	37.539	.000
	Residual	109.291	304	.360		
	Total	122.786	305			
2 ^b	Regression	15.158	2	7.579	21.337	.000
	Residual	107.628	303	.355		
	Total	122.786	305			

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

^a Predictors: (Constant), Extraversion

^b Predictors: (Constant), Extraversion, Conscientiousness

Table AB131

Coefficients of Regression

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 ^a	(Constant)	4.041	.188	21.512	.000	3.671	4.410					
	Extraversion	.031	.005	.332	6.127	.021	.041	.332	.332	.332	1.000	1.000
	(Constant)	3.562	.290	12.300	.000	2.992	4.132					
2 ^b	Extraversion	.027	.005	.291	5.107	.017	.037	.332	.282	.275	.891	1.122
	Conscientiousness	.012	.006	.123	2.163	.031	.024	.219	.123	.116	.891	1.122

Note. Dependent Variable: RLS

^a Predictors: (Constant), Extraversion

^b Predictors: (Constant), Extraversion, Conscientiousness

APPENDIX AC

Multiple Regression Analysis of Personality Trait Factors and Romance of Leadership for Female Participants

Table AC132

Descriptive Statistics for Female Participants

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
RLS	5.2755	.65195	82
Extraversion	40.1341	6.97396	82
Agreeableness	51.0976	6.16163	82
Neuroticism	26.0293	7.29526	82
Conscientiousness	51.5518	5.89684	82
Openness	56.1951	6.94500	82

Table AC133

Variables Entered/Removed

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Extraversion		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

Table AC134

Model Summary

Model	R Gender = Female	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1 ^a	.419 ^a	.176	.166	.59554	.176	17.071	1	80	.000

^a. Predictors: (Constant), Extraversion

Table AC135

ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 ^a	Regression	6.055	1	6.055	17.071	.000
	Residual	28.374	80	.355		
	Total	34.428	81			

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

^a Predictors: (Constant), Extraversion

Table AC136

Coefficients of Regression

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.702	.386	9.580	.000	2.933	4.471					
	Extraversion	.039	.009	.419	4.132	.020	.058	.419	.419	.419	1.000	1.000

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

Table AC137

Excluded Variables

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
					Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
Agreeableness	.067	.636	.526	.071	.934	1.071	.934
Neuroticism	-.034	-.323	.748	-.036	.946	1.058	.946
¹ Conscientiousness	.026	.251	.803	.028	.972	1.029	.972
Openness	.207	1.817	.073	.200	.773	1.294	.773

Note. Dependent variable: RLS

^a Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Extraversion

APPENDIX AD

Spearman's Correlational Statistics between Maturity Factors and Romance of Leadership, Controlling for Gender

Table AD138

Correlational Matrix for Male Participants

		RLS	Age	YoW	YoM	YoCE	Seniority Level (JFT)
RLS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.004	-.007	.127*	.199**	.154**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.947	.907	.026	.000	.007
Age	Correlation Coefficient	-.004	1.000	.939**	.641**	-.021	.605**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.947	.	.000	.000	.715	.000
Years of Working (YoW)	Correlation Coefficient	-.007	.939**	1.000	.712**	-.057	.637**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.907	.000	.	.000	.317	.000
Years of Managing (YoM)	Correlation Coefficient	.127*	.641**	.712**	1.000	-.041	.624**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.026	.000	.000	.	.478	.000
Years of College Education (YoCE)	Correlation Coefficient	.199**	-.021	-.057	-.041	1.000	.059
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.715	.317	.478	.	.302
Seniority Level (JFT)	Correlation Coefficient	.154**	.605**	.637**	.624**	.059	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.000	.000	.000	.302	.

Note. $N = 306$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Note. Spearman's rho correlation coefficients.

Table AD139

Correlational Matrix for Female Participants

		RLS	Age	YoW	YoM	YoCE	Seniority Level (JFT)
RLS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.141	.147	.348**	.137	.272*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.205	.187	.001	.220	.013
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.141	1.000	.896**	.513**	.203	.471**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.205	.	.000	.000	.067	.000
Years of Working (YoW)	Correlation Coefficient	.147	.896**	1.000	.594**	.175	.496**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.187	.000	.	.000	.117	.000
Years of Managing (YoM)	Correlation Coefficient	.348**	.513**	.594**	1.000	.178	.619**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.	.111	.000
Years of College Education (YoCE)	Correlation Coefficient	.137	.203	.175	.178	1.000	.299**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.220	.067	.117	.111	.	.006
Seniority Level (JFT)	Correlation Coefficient	.272*	.471**	.496**	.619**	.299**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	.000	.000	.000	.006	.

Note. $N = 82$. * p (two-tailed) $< .05$. ** p (two-tailed) $< .01$.

Note. Spearman's rho correlation coefficients.

APPENDIX AE

Percentages of Female and Male Participants Agreeing with the 17 Leadership Statements, Grouped by Seniority Level (NJFT)

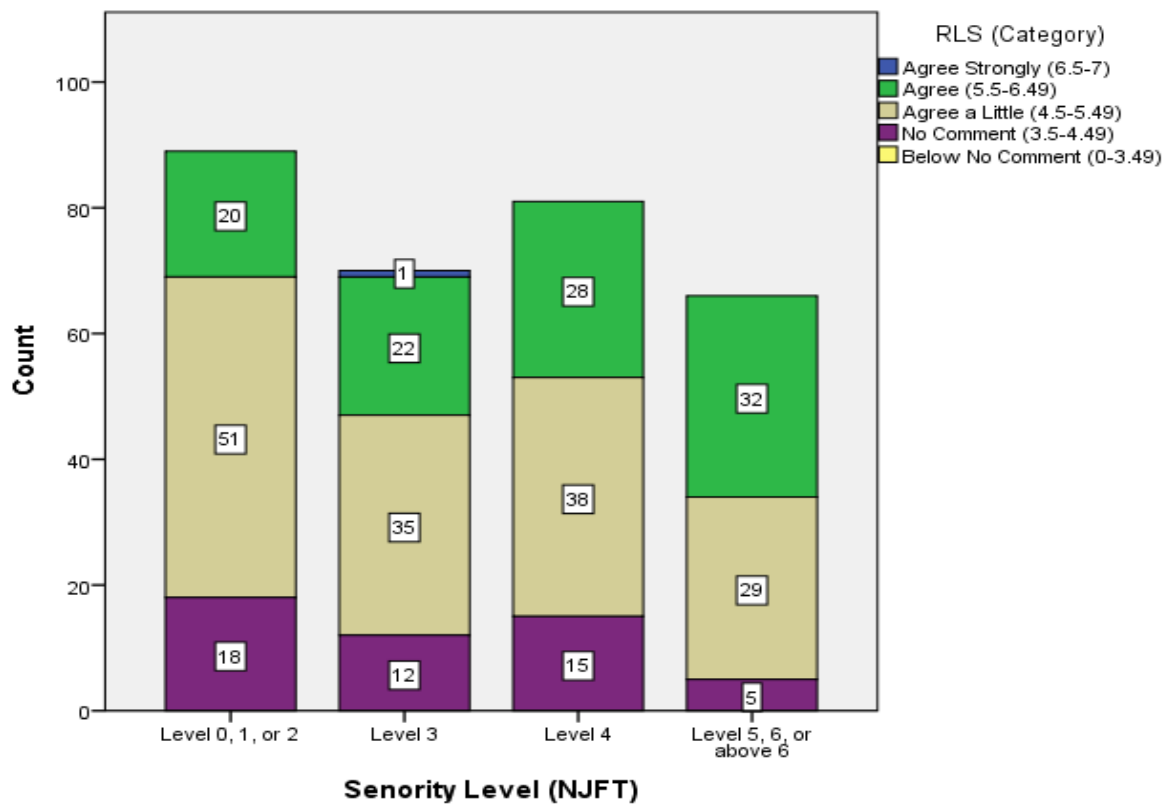


Figure AE55. Frequency distribution of the average scores of responses of male participants to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level (NJFT)

Table AE140

Percentages of Participants Agreed with the 17 Leadership Statements

	Percent Agreed	Percent of Female Agreed	Percent of Male Agreed
N	388	82	326
Level 0,1, and 2	80.33%	81.82%	79.78%
Level 3	80.65%	73.91%	86.67%
Level 4	83.16%	92.86%	81.48%
Level 5,6, and above	93.59%	100.00%	92.42%

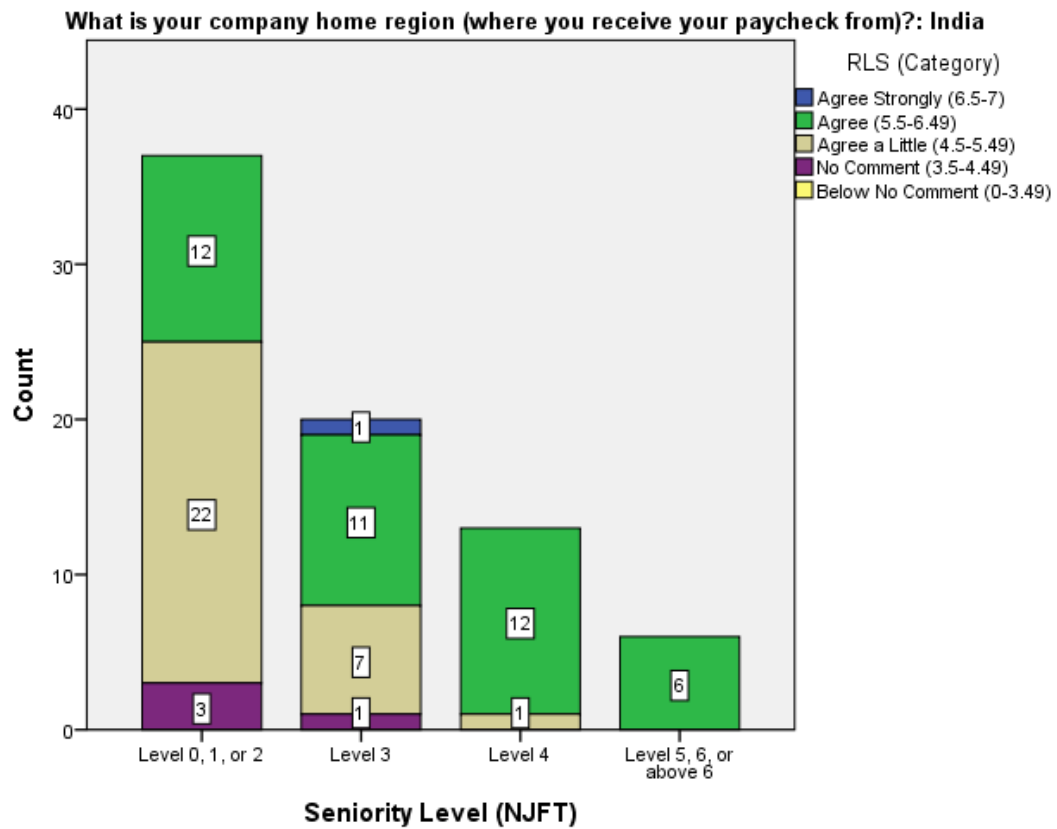


Figure AE56. Frequency distribution of the average scores of responses of male participants from India to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level (NJFT)

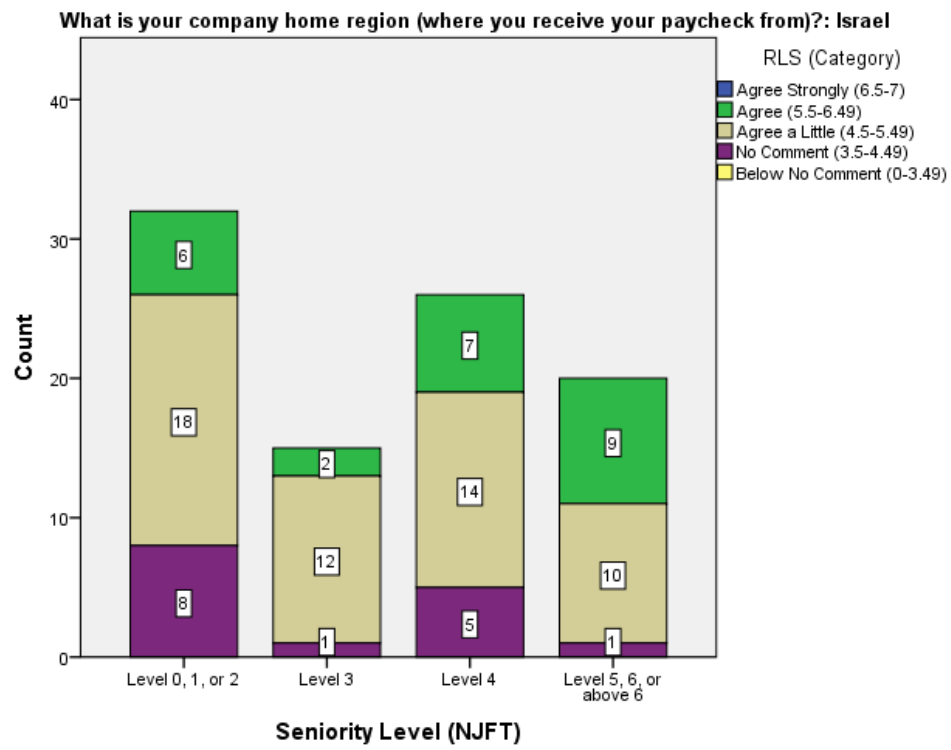


Figure AE57. Frequency distribution of the average scores of responses of male participants from Israel to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level (NJFT)

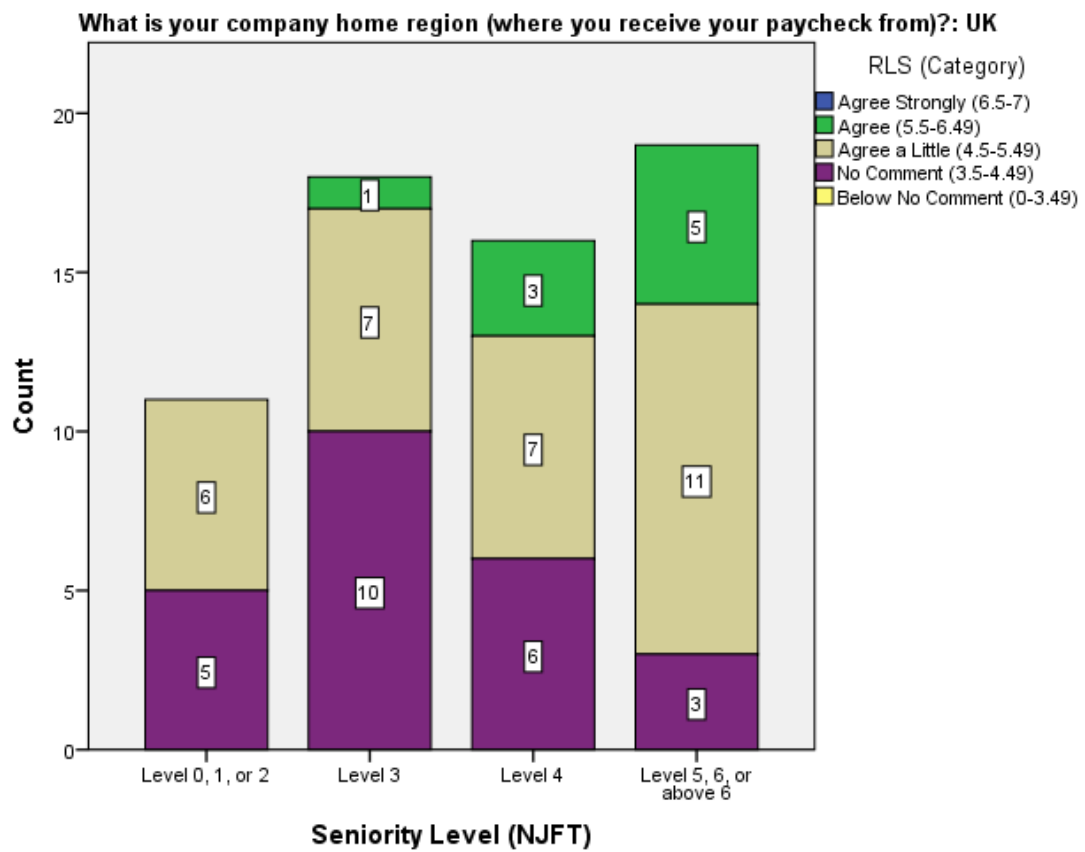


Figure AE58. Frequency distribution of the average scores of responses of male participants from the United Kingdom to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level (NJFT)

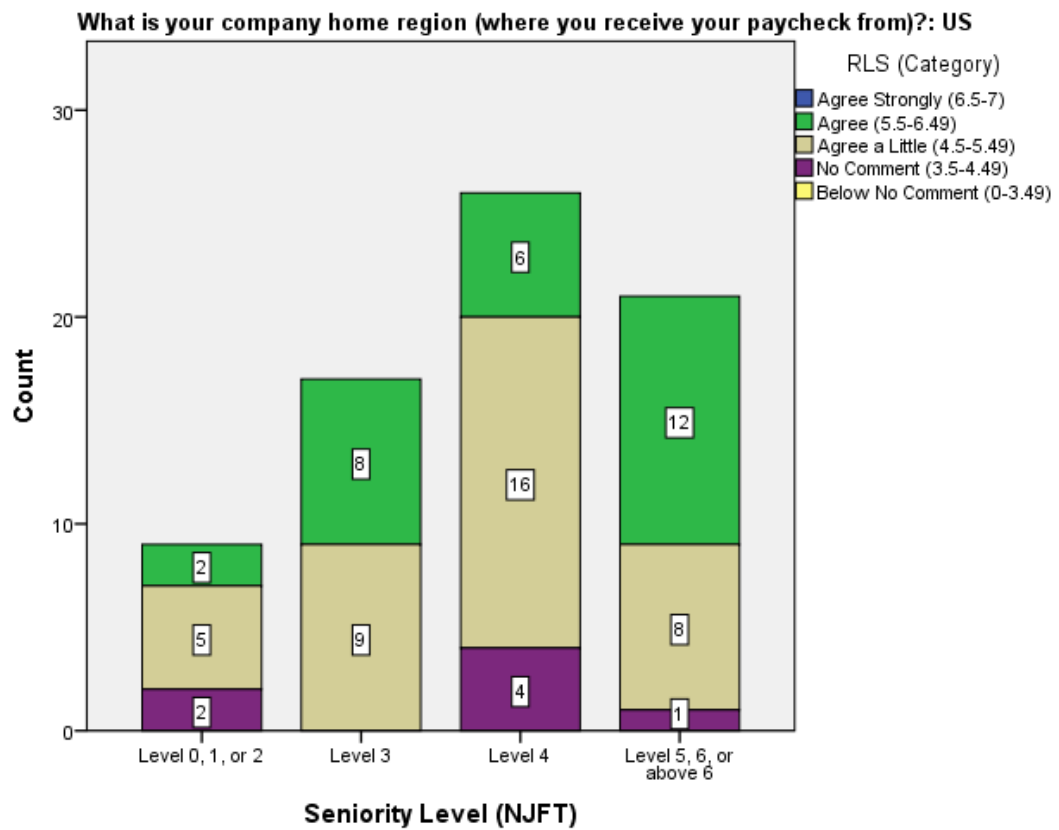


Figure AE59. Frequency distribution of the average scores of responses of male participants from the United States to the 17 leadership statements, grouped by seniority level (NJFT)

Table AE141

Percentages of Male Participants from Each Region Agreeing with the 17 Leadership Statements

	Company	India	Israel	UK	US
N	306	76	93	64	73
Level 0, 1, 2	79.78%	91.89%	75.00%	54.55%	77.78%
Level 3	82.86%	95.00%	93.33%	44.44%	100.00%
Level 4	81.48%	100.00%	80.77%	62.50%	84.62%
Level 5, 6, and above	92.42%	100.00%	95.00%	84.21%	95.24%

APPENDIX AF

Analysis of the Interactions between Personality Trait Factors and Seniority Level

(NJFT)

Table AF142

Analysis of the Interactions between Extraversion and Seniority Level (NJFT)

R: 0.504419226

R Square: 0.254438755

R Square Adjusted: 0.240704733

Standard Error of the Estimate: 0.556608155

R Square Contribution of the Interaction Term(s): 0.009258340

RESEARCH MODEL: $Y = B1X1 + B2D1 + B3D2 + B4D3 + B5X1D1 + B6X1D2 + B7X1D3 + B0$

WHERE: $Y = RLS$

$X1$ = Extraversion (centered)

$D1$ = Dummy variable 1 (Seniority Level 3 vs. SL 2 and below)

$D2$ = Dummy variable 2 (Seniority Level 4 vs. SL 2 and below)

$D3$ = Dummy variable 3 (Seniority Level 5 and above vs. SL 2)

$B0$ = Regression constant

	B	Std Error	t	Sig.
(Regression constant):	4.8287	0.0659	73.2811	0.0000
Extraversion (centered):	0.0331	0.0082	4.0573	0.0001
Dummy variable 1:	0.6681	0.0903	7.3944	0.0000
Dummy variable 2:	0.4753	0.0883	5.3854	0.0000
Dummy variable 3:	0.3048	0.0832	3.6658	0.0003
Interaction term 1:	-0.0211	0.0123	-1.7145	0.0872
Interaction term 2:	0.0020	0.0123	0.1596	0.8733
Interaction term 3:	-0.0135	0.0110	-1.2342	0.2179

Table AF143

Analysis of the Interactions between Agreeableness and Seniority Level (NJFT)

R: 0.263371334

R Square: 0.069364459

R Square Adjusted:

0.052221173

Standard Error of the Estimate:

0.621867298

R Square Contribution of the Interaction Term(s):

0.009011472

RESEARCH MODEL: $Y = B1X1 + B2D1 + B3D2 + B4D3 + B5X1D1 + B6X1D2 + B7X1D3 + B0$

WHERE: $Y = RLS$

$X1$ = Agreeableness (centered)

$D1$ = Dummy variable 1 (Seniority Level 3 vs. SL 2 and below)

$D2$ = Dummy variable 2 (Seniority Level 4 vs. SL 2 and below)

$D3$ = Dummy variable 3 (Seniority Level 5 and above vs. SL 2)

$B0$ = Regression constant

	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
(Regression constant):	5.0870	0.0565	90.0538	0.0000
Agreeableness (centered):	0.0246	0.0096	2.5769	0.0103
Dummy variable 1:	0.0142	0.0858	0.1658	0.8684
Dummy variable 2:	0.1388	0.0853	1.6270	0.1046
Dummy variable 3:	0.3480	0.0906	3.8391	0.0001
Interaction term 1:	-0.0266	0.0146	-1.8268	0.0685
Interaction term 2:	-0.0042	0.0140	-0.2976	0.7662
Interaction term 3:	-0.0092	0.0148	-0.6196	0.5359

Table AF144

Analysis of the Interactions between Neuroticism and Seniority Level (NJFT)

R: 0.252256506

R Square: 0.063633345

R Square Adjusted:

0.046384485

Standard Error of the Estimate:

0.623779176

R Square Contribution of the Interaction Term(s):

0.008396657

RESEARCH MODEL: $Y = B1X1 + B2D1 + B3D2 + B4D3 + B5X1D1 + B6X1D2 + B7X1D3 + B0$

WHERE: $Y = RLS$

$X1$ = Neuroticism (centered)

$D1$ = Dummy variable 1 (Seniority Level 3 vs. SL 2 and below)

$D2$ = Dummy variable 2 (Seniority Level 4 vs. SL 2 and below)

$D3$ = Dummy variable 3 (Seniority Level 5 and above vs. SL 2)

$B0$ = Regression constant

	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
(Regression constant):	5.0972	0.0566	90.1211	0.0000
Neuroticism (centered):	-0.0040	0.0074	-0.5435	0.5871
Dummy variable 1:	0.0020	0.0859	0.0230	0.9816
Dummy variable 2:	0.1377	0.0856	1.6079	0.1087
Dummy variable 3:	0.3270	0.0905	3.6135	0.0003
Interaction term 1:	-0.0074	0.0112	-0.6621	0.5083
Interaction term 2:	-0.0219	0.0122	-1.7993	0.0727
Interaction term 3:	-0.0039	0.0114	-0.3387	0.7350

Table AF145

Analysis of the Interactions between Conscientiousness and Seniority Level (NJFT)

R: 0.295018784

R Square: 0.087036082

R Square Adjusted:

0.070218326

Standard Error of the Estimate:

0.615934753

R Square Contribution of the Interaction Term(s):

0.004716094

RESEARCH MODEL: $Y = B1X1 + B2D1 + B3D2 + B4D3 + B5X1D1 + B6X1D2 + B7X1D3 + B0$

WHERE: $Y = RLS$

$X1$ = Conscientiousness

$D1$ = Dummy variable 1 (Seniority Level 3 vs. SL 2 and below)

$D2$ = Dummy variable 2 (Seniority Level 4 vs. SL 2 and below)

$D3$ = Dummy variable 3 (Seniority Level 5 and above vs. SL 2)

$B0$ = Regression constant

	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
(Regression constant):	5.0985	0.0558	91.4301	0.0000
Conscientiousness (centered):	0.0160	0.0087	1.8358	0.0672
Dummy variable 1:	-0.0091	0.0849	-0.1077	0.9143
Dummy variable 2:	0.1161	0.0843	1.3775	0.1691
Dummy variable 3:	0.3337	0.0896	3.7250	0.0002
Interaction term 1:	0.0130	0.0139	0.9369	0.3494
Interaction term 2:	0.0124	0.0132	0.9435	0.3460
Interaction term 3:	-0.0031	0.0142	-0.2190	0.8268

Table AF146

Analysis of the Interactions between Openness to Experience and Seniority Level (NJFT)

R: 0.289388285

R Square: 0.083745579

R Square Adjusted: 0.066867208

Standard Error of the Estimate: 0.617043731

R Square Contribution of the Interaction Term(s): 0.012184939

RESEARCH MODEL: $Y = B1X1 + B2D1 + B3D2 + B4D3 + B5X1D1 + B6X1D2 + B7X1D3 + B0$

WHERE: $Y = RLS$

$X1$ = Openness (centered)

$D1$ = Dummy variable 1 (Seniority Level 3 vs. SL 2 and below)

$D2$ = Dummy variable 2 (Seniority Level 4 vs. SL 2 and below)

$D3$ = Dummy variable 3 (Seniority Level 5 and above vs. SL 2)

$B0$ = Regression constant

	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
(Regression constant):	5.0936	0.05599	91.0535	0.0000
Openness (centered):	0.0155	0.0085	1.8155	0.0702
Dummy variable 1:	0.0233	0.0852	0.2735	0.7846
Dummy variable 2:	0.1522	0.0852	1.7870	0.0747
Dummy variable 3:	0.3337	0.0911	3.6610	0.0003
Interaction term 1:	0.0148	0.0132	1.1221	0.2625
Interaction term 2:	0.0084	0.0128	0.6587	0.5105
Interaction term 3:	-0.0178	0.0144	-1.2380	0.2165

APPENDIX AG

Analysis of the Interactions between Personality Trait Factors and Home Region

Table AG147

Analysis of the Interactions between Extraversion and Home Region

R: 0.504419226

R Square: 0.254438755

R Square Adjusted: 0.240704733

Standard Error of the Estimate: 0.556608155

R Square Contribution of the Interaction Term(s):
0.009258340

RESEARCH MODEL: $Y = B1X1 + B2D1 + B3D2 + B4D3 + B5X1D1 + B6X1D2 + B7X1D3 + B0$

WHERE: $Y = RLS$

$X1$ = Extraversion (centered)

$D1$ = Dummy variable 1 (India vs. UK)

$D2$ = Dummy variable 2 (Israel vs. UK)

$D3$ = Dummy variable 3 (US vs. UK)

$B0$ = Regression constant

	B	Std Error	t	Sig.
(Regression constant):	4.8287	0.0659	73.2811	0.0000
Extraversion (centered):	0.0331	0.0082	4.0573	0.0001
Dummy variable 1:	0.6681	0.0903	7.3944	0.0000
Dummy variable 2:	0.4753	0.0883	5.3854	0.0000
Dummy variable 3:	0.3048	0.0832	3.6658	0.0003
Interaction term 1:	-0.0211	0.0123	-1.7145	0.0872
Interaction term 2:	0.0020	0.0123	0.1596	0.8733
Interaction term 3:	-0.0135	0.0110	-1.2342	0.2179

Table AG148

Analysis of the Interactions between Agreeableness and Home Region

R: 0.450993690

R Square: 0.203395308

R Square Adjusted: 0.188721011

Standard Error of the Estimate: 0.575346311

R Square Contribution of the Interaction Term(s): 0.018630740

RESEARCH MODEL: $Y = B1X1 + B2D1 + B3D2 + B4D3 + B5X1D1 + B6X1D2 + B7X1D3 + B0$

WHERE: $Y = RLS$

$X1$ = Agreeableness (centered)

$D1$ = Dummy variable 1 (India vs. UK)

$D2$ = Dummy variable 2 (Israel vs. UK)

$D3$ = Dummy variable 3 (US vs. UK)

$B0$ = Regression constant

	B	Std Error	t	Sig.
(Regression constant):	4.7774	0.0672	71.0800	0.0000
Agreeableness (centered):	0.0148	0.0103	1.4277	0.1542
Dummy variable 1:	0.7413	0.0893	8.3018	0.0000
Dummy variable 2:	0.3422	0.0851	4.0228	0.0001
Dummy variable 3:	0.5464	0.0906	6.0288	0.0000
Interaction term 1:	0.0000	0.0155	-0.0027	0.9978
Interaction term 2:	-0.0241	0.0133	-1.8167	0.0700
Interaction term 3:	0.0120	0.0140	0.8547	0.3933

Table AG149

Analysis of the Interactions between Neuroticism and Home Region

R: 0.441925716

R Square: 0.195298338

R Square Adjusted: 0.180474887

Standard Error of the Estimate:

0.578262929

R Square Contribution of the Interaction Term(s):

0.013190895

RESEARCH MODEL: $Y = B1X1 + B2D1 + B3D2 + B4D3 + B5X1D1 + B6X1D2 + B7X1D3 + B0$

WHERE: $Y = RLS$

$X1$ = Neuroticism (centered)

$D1$ = Dummy variable 1 (India vs. UK)

$D2$ = Dummy variable 2 (Israel vs. UK)

$D3$ = Dummy variable 3 (US vs. UK)

$B0$ = Regression constant

	B	Std Error	t	Sig.
(Regression constant):	4.7746	0.0666	71.7078	0.0000
Neuroticism (centered):	-0.0155	0.0081	-1.9167	0.0560
Dummy variable 1:	0.7539	0.0893	8.4404	0.0000
Dummy variable 2:	0.3368	0.0847	3.9781	0.0001
Dummy variable 3:	0.5314	0.0903	5.8838	0.0000
Interaction term 1:	0.0143	0.0119	1.2053	0.2288
Interaction term 2:	0.0200	0.0105	1.8976	0.0585
Interaction term 3:	-0.0027	0.0116	-0.2328	0.8161

Table AG150

Analysis of the Interactions between Conscientiousness and Home Region

R: 0.457541911

R Square: 0.209344601

R Square Adjusted: 0.194779896

Standard Error of the Estimate:

0.573193851

R Square Contribution of the Interaction Term(s): 0.008873308

RESEARCH MODEL: $Y = B1X1 + B2D1 + B3D2 + B4D3 + B5X1D1 + B6X1D2 + B7X1D3 + B0$

WHERE: $Y = RLS$

$X1$ = Conscientiousness (centered)

$D1$ = Dummy variable 1 (India vs. UK)

$D2$ = Dummy variable 2 (Israel vs. UK)

$D3$ = Dummy variable 3 (US vs. UK)

$B0$ = Regression constant

	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
(Regression constant):	4.7713	0.0661	72.1944	0.0000
Conscientiousness (centered):	0.0144	0.0097	1.4901	0.1370
Dummy variable 1:	0.7469	0.0880	8.4861	0.0000
Dummy variable 2:	0.3445	0.0841	4.0986	0.0001
Dummy variable 3:	0.5079	0.0903	5.6255	0.0000
Interaction term 1:	0.0093	0.0140	0.6657	0.5060
Interaction term 2:	-0.0113	0.0128	-0.8770	0.3810
Interaction term 3:	0.0127	0.0137	0.9279	0.3540

Table AG151

Analysis of the Interactions between Openness to Experience and Home Region

R: 0.467808338

R Square: 0.218844641

R Square Adjusted:

0.204454937

Standard Error of the Estimate:

0.569739868

R Square Contribution of the Interaction

Term(s): 0.008171229

RESEARCH MODEL: $Y = B1X1 + B2D1 + B3D2 + B4D3 + B5X1D1 + B6X1D2 + B7X1D3 + B0$

WHERE: $Y = RLS$

$X1$ = Openness (centered)

$D1$ = Dummy variable 1 (India vs. UK)

$D2$ = Dummy variable 2 (Israel vs. UK)

$D3$ = Dummy variable 3 (US vs. UK)

$B0$ = Regression constant

	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
(Regression constant):	4.7575	0.0649	73.2678	0.0000
Openness (centered):	0.0145	0.0096	1.5060	0.1329
Dummy variable 1:	0.7732	0.0868	8.9092	0.0000
Dummy variable 2:	0.3713	0.0830	4.4740	0.0000
Dummy variable 3:	0.5144	0.0892	5.7654	0.0000
Interaction term 1:	-0.0109	0.0143	-0.7641	0.4453
Interaction term 2:	0.0051	0.0122	0.4138	0.6792
Interaction term 3:	0.0160	0.0132	1.2129	0.2259